

# The Social Science Bulletin

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H. P. TODD: Industrialization in the South	1
ANNETTE S. BOUTWELL: America's Children at Midcentury	9
HESTER S. WARE: Mississippi's Folkways	11
LEE B. GAITHER AND OTHERS: Mississippi's Labor Force - Implications for Research	14
JOHN K. BETTERS WORTH: The Student Life at Mississippi State College, Part II	17

## NOTES, EXTRACTS, AND ABSTRACTS

On the Ground or In the Mouth	11
Support for Basic Social Science Development	7
The Responsibility of the Social Scientist	8
Economics Study Shows Southern Advance	10
Television and the Family, by W. P. Carter	13
Marriage and Family Courses in Mississippi by W. P. Carter	30
John A. Quitman: A Pioneer Champion of State Rights by James H. McLendon	31
Teacher Salary Policies in Mississippi by Eron R. Tootle	32
Mississippi's Rural Migration by Harald A. Pedersen	35
Business Activity and Farm Prices in January Activities	36 37

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ON THE GROUND OR IN THE MOUTH

In this time of the breaking of nations, the social scientist sometimes wonders whether atomic fission will get around to eliminating him before emotional fission does the job. In fact, it is not necessary that our psychological operatives be called in for us to comprehend that the hysteria of these times bodes ill for us all—social scientist, physical scientist, or just plain citizen.

Nearly a year has passed since the cold war began to thaw. In that time the American people have been hard put to it to know their own minds, much less their own emotions. In the excitement, we have threatened to repeat the performance of those persons who at the outbreak of a fire proceed to throw themselves out of windows or trample one another down in a mad scramble for the door, with the result that destruction by fire accounts for only a small fraction of the casualties. If we will but trouble ourselves to "walk not run to the nearest exit," perhaps at the worst we can die gracefully.

At the outset, let it be remembered that even if all-out war does not come now, we might as well become accustomed to the fact that being policeman on the world beat is no political sinecure. We shall have to wield sticks, perhaps even draw guns, and not merely toot whistles. In other words, we shall be fighting here and there without benefit of formal declarations of war and such; and whether we like it or not, we shall have to maintain a standing defense force of more effective and efficient nature than in times past. That means a greater proportion of our population than ever before will be diverted into the military profession. It was so with Britain when the Empire held this policing role; it will doubtless be so with us, the sons who have taken over the old man's job. The British Empire learned to live with war; in fact, it even tried to domesticate it and teach it, like all things British, to keep its proper place. War went on, but so did life. And, although Britain often lost the battles—especially the initial ones—she rarely lost the wars. Perhaps for us, this sort of history is repeating itself in Korea.

Our problem, then, is to learn to get along with war, or in spite of it. Amid all the well-publicized confusion in Washington, there seem to be a few souls in those parts who are aware of this fact, and their influence has not been entirely wanting in the handling of the manpower problem. In theory, at least, the present mobilization is not geared to disrupt our national life, for such would be catastrophic in anything short of general war.

Yes, life must go on, and that is where the social scientist comes in. This emergency and the ones to follow will call upon the energies of both body and mind. There must, of course, be military training. There must also be training and research in the physical and biological sciences, but the social sciences and the humanities must not be neglected. Although the latter cannot hope to advance the destructive arts so handsomely as can the former, they can, however, be destructive enough, particularly in the warfare of mind and emotion, whose potentialities for evil reach alarming proportions. Rather, it should be the task of the social scientist to advance the constructive arts—to see that life, as well as war, is waged, and to attempt to heal the wounds of both.

In classroom and laboratory we must concern ourselves with the whole man. We must promote training and research in the social sciences and the humanities while we teach our hands to war and our minds to devise the means of victory. There is more to "national defense" than the toting of a gun or the splitting of an atom. After all, the purpose of having a gun around is not to blow out one's brains, but such could be entirely possible if we do not go about the business sensibly.

Far be it from us as social scientists to overemphasize the importance of our role. We are simply part of "the team," to use a trite and somewhat sententious term; we want to win the wars, too. In that connection, we are aware that there are some false prophets among us, that there are time-fritterers and malingers. Every field of knowledge has its charlatans, and all of us suffer in the process of computing the lowest common denominator. Suffice it to say, now as never before, it is the duty of all of the sciences to rid themselves of these professional camp-followers.

The crisis of today is no unique development in mankind's history. Nations which have assumed the responsibilities of world leadership in the past have had to face such crises time and time again. Sometimes the emergency has been met with calmness and reasonableness; oftentimes it has simply confounded confusion. Unfortunately, the bad as well as the good in history has a habit of repeating itself. Fortunately, we of this generation still have a degree of choice in the matter if we keep our wits about us. It is all a question of where we put our feet—on the ground or in our mouths.—J.K.B.

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The SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH CENTER (John K. Battersworth, Chairman; Harold F. Kaufman, Associate Chairman) is an agency designed to stimulate cooperation among the social sciences at Mississippi State College and to encourage research in undeveloped areas of the social science field, particularly along interdisciplinary lines.

# INDUSTRIALIZATION IN THE SOUTH:

## *Its Relationship to Agriculture*

by

H. P. TODD

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**NOTE:** The following article is based on a paper presented to the Joint Crops and Soils Section at the Southern Agricultural Workers' Association meeting in Memphis, February 5, 1951.

For ages after ancient men discovered how to make cloth from wool or vegetable fibers, they must have used their fingers to twist the fibers into yarn, and their fingers to weave the yarn into a fabric. They made a great advance when they invented the spinning wheel and the loom. They made another great advance when they learned to smelt iron, from ores that do not look like iron, by chemical processes they did not understand, with blasts from a hand bellows. In early times, even the axe, hoe, flail, and scythe, the rude wooden plow and the cart, were great inventions. And the man who first yoked the ox to the plow or cart deserved a monument.

It is amazing that for thousands of years, everywhere until 160 years ago, men continued to use these same tools and machines, with little improvement. But it is still more amazing that within 160 years--two life-times of eighty years each--some countries have developed great industrial civilizations, while two-thirds of the world's peoples still use the ancient tools--barefooted, in rags, hungry, living average lives of 27 to 33 years, without expectation of improvement.

In England, 160 years ago, tools, power, and mode of life were little different from what they were 2,000 years before in the more advanced countries. The work animal, if any, was the ox, sometimes the horse. Most people were farm people, else there could not have been enough food and fiber. Almost everything eaten, worn, or used was made at home. Most farms were small, three to ten acres. There was population pressure on the land, and this pressure was increasing, compounding poverty. In every farm home women and girls spun wool or flax, sometimes cotton, on the spinning wheel, one thread at a time. And most farm families eked out the income by the sale of thread or cloth.

The world grew one-half pound of cotton per capita, and England imported annually 8,000 bales, 500-weight equivalent. The Southern States grew 10,000 bales--planted and cultivated with the hoe (just as corn was), picked by hand, and picked from the seed by hand, four pounds a week per worker. In Europe and America, it is estimated, there was one horse for 200 families, and 100,000 mechanical horsepower for 200,000,000 people--one horsepower for 2,000 persons. Small wonder that Malthus was predicting that the increase in the population would outrun the food supply. However, even then, farmers were learning better cultural methods, and scientists were studying the chemistry of soils and of plant growth; within sixty years the first experiment station and the first fertilizer factory were to be established. And much other science was in the foundation stage.

Of more immediate importance, several inventors, within the space of thirty years, had laid the basis for changing the work of the world. They had found ways to make better iron, a precondition for making better tools and machinery. Watt had made an improved steam engine, for the first time having a condenser and being able to turn wheels. Others developed the spinning wheel into a machine that spun several threads instead of one, and they operated it with water power. In 1786, a cotton spinning mill was operated by Watt's steam engine. Similar improvements were made with the loom. And in 1793 Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin.

All these machines were steadily improved, as today they are still being improved. By 1830, spinning was almost an automatic process; today the seven steps in cotton spinning are practically a mass production line process; one attendant services 1,600 fast-moving spindles. There has been comparable progress in weaving, ginning, and mechanical power.

Northern England, a rugged country without fertile soil, had long been thought poor in resources. But these inventions made that region the workshop of England, and for decades the workshop of the world. For here were, in proximity, coal, iron, water power, and water for cheap transportation; and of course an abundant labor supply. We



are reminded how true it is that what the resources of a people are is conditioned by the state of their sciences and arts; that, as Wesley Mitchell said, even natural resources are a cultural product.

This was the Industrial Revolution in England--swift, bringing new conditions and adjustments without precedent. The farm homes lost their cloth-making business to the labor-saving, low-cost factories. For a time there was much unemployment and harsh exploitation of labor. But after some decades industrialization, in many kinds of factories, in vast developments in transportation, and in the many accessory services required, gave abundant employment. It relieved the pressure on the land, while improved farm tools and better agricultural science increased farm production and incomes. As cities grew, the demand for foods increased, even beyond the capacities of English agriculture. By the 1860's American farms were exporting large quantities of wheat, corn, and meats, as well as cotton, to England, and buying in exchange the products of English factories.

These developments made cotton and cloth cheaper, and this stimulated demand. Since these inventions were made, the population of the world has multiplied two and one-third times, but cotton consumption has multiplied thirty times, and in the most highly industrialized countries three hundred times.

New England had an abundant supply of labor in a land not suited to commercial agriculture. When cotton mills were so developed that women and children could do most of the work, New England exploited this labor supply in textile mills.

In 1790 the population of the South was made up of 900,000 whites and 700,000 Negroes; most Negroes being from one to four generations out of Africa. The demand for Southern farm products was not sufficient to employ all the workers. If it had not been for the coming of cotton, it is difficult to see how the rapidly multiplying population ever could have been employed.

Under all these conditions, having vast undeveloped lands so well adapted to cotton growing, the South grew cotton together with rice, tobacco, indigo, sugar cane, and livestock, in areas not adapted to cotton. Except cotton gins, rice mills, sugar mills, and the like, for primary processing of agricultural products; and except brick kilns, sawmills, tanneries, machine shops, and grist mills, furnishing needed supplies from local materials, the South for the most part left manufacturing to others. All the crops required enormous amounts of hand labor. There was clearing of new lands with the axe, ditching with the spade, the construction of buildings, operation of steamboats, building railroads and running trains, and the work of doctors, teachers, lawyers, preachers, surveyors, and public officials--an immense amount of work to do.

No sewing machine was manufactured until the 1850's, no shoe-sewing machine until the 1860's. Only slowly were farm tools a little improved, sufficient work animals accumulated, and better varieties of crops developed, so that productivity might be increased. Hauling produce to market, often sixty or a hundred miles away, was slow business in the ox-wagon days. It was long before home spinning and weaving could be discontinued. So much labor was required for all these things that there was in general no surplus labor for manufacturing. Other work fully occupied the labor, enterprise, and capital of the South, in the most economic ways for that time; or so it seemed to the people of the time, and so it seems to me.

However, by 1860, in the older Southern States there were 160 cotton mills with 300,000 spindles, and considerable other manufacturing.

In this way it was that the Old South was developed into one of the most prosperous and advanced regions in the world. But the whole structure of its economy and a large part of its capital were destroyed by the Civil War and Reconstruction. The South was set back at least thirty years. In 1879, although the population was forty-five percent larger, cotton production had only recovered to the figures of 1859. It was 1893 before Louisiana sugar production recovered to 1860 figures. South Carolina rice plantations never recovered.

The main influence of the industrial age on the South had been to make it a region of great commercial agriculture. But about 1880 conditions began to develop that were to make the South also a great manufacturing region. The South had water power. Power plants began to provide electric energy, in the South as elsewhere. Many cotton mills were established by Southern community enterprise; others moved South. There was by that time a pool of surplus labor to draw on, and it was increasing. Now the South has, except woolen mills, 80 percent of the textile mills--an enormous, highly efficient industry.



The demand for tobacco grew. Power machines for making cigarets were invented--now one machine makes 1,000 cigarets a minute. Most tobacco factories are in the South; industry and agriculture have developed together.

By 1886 Hall invented the electrolytic process for making aluminum, and the Arkansas State Geologist found bauxite in a road farmers were building with it. Now the South has the largest aluminum manufacturing business in the world, and large aluminum fabricating industries.

The age of steam and machinery was also to be the age of iron. About 1870 the Bessemer process for making steel began the age of cheap, abundant, high-quality steel, which has been essential in all industry and has aided agriculture as much as any other business. In 1950 the United States annual production of steel was half of world production, and over 1,300 pounds per capita.

The Birmingham area has coal, iron, and lime in proximity. After about 1900 the open-hearth process enabled Birmingham to make steel economically. It makes almost four times as much pig iron as all India with its 400,000,000 people. And the South has some other small steel plants too. But Northern areas had most of the iron ores, and iron and steel manufacture became a great industry in the North. The first major inventions of improved farm machinery were the harvester and others suitable for Northern crops; so that factories for making farm machinery, as well as other iron and steel products, developed first in the North. However, nearly all farm implement manufacturers now have Southern branches and are competing for Southern trade; and the South makes varied steel products, even great steel bridges and battleships.

In passing, as an example of the interconnectedness of things, note that benzene is a by-product of the coking of coal in the steel industry; and that benzene is a great industrial chemical from which, among many other things, 2,4-D, DDT, and benzene hexachloride are made--indispensables for farmers. Also, that basic slag is a by-product on the steel industry.

Since the 1880's, when Northern forests had been cut over, there has been a growing market for Southern lumber and other wood products. This is fortunate, for, excepting the western plains, over half of the Southern land area is woodland, the larger part being owned by farmers. Furniture manufacturing, begun in North Carolina, now the third state in furniture, is an important industry in most Southern states; although it is not important enough, because some states with excellent timber make only two to five dollars worth of furniture per capita annually. Thanks to science, the South has great and growing pulp and kraft paper and paperboard industries, and is important in newsprint; manufactures three-fourths of our rayon and cellophane; makes Masonite and plywood; provides naval stores, now important raw materials in the chemical industry; and from pine stumps and sawdust makes many chemicals, including toxaphene and others important for farmers.

The uses of wood are increasing. A Memphis plant makes a mile-long strip of kleenex thirteen feet wide every three minutes; a Savannah plant makes 1,100 tons of kraft paper and paperboard and 30,000,000 paper bags a day; and similar plants are dotted all about the South. We use about 350 pounds of paper a year, per capita, yet paper is scarce. Rayon and cellophane are in short supply.

Timber is a great employer. The Masonite plant at Laurel employs 3,000 persons directly, and indirectly gives employment to several thousand others. The county around the plant has 300,000 acres of timber--enough, the foresters say, if scientifically managed, to supply Masonite in perpetuity. Most Southern towns and cities have similar resources, within a radius of forty miles, for the employment of as many thousands in timber and wood products.

First water power; then steam power; then electric power. Still another form of energy has profoundly influenced work and ways of living, and very specially in the South. In 1859 the first oil well was brought in in Pennsylvania. By 1900 Rockefeller had his empire; but all the oil produced up to that time would not run this country six months now. The principal uses had been for kerosene and lubrication.

But the internal combustion engine, using oil products for fuel, had recently been invented. Henry Ford and others then foresaw the automotive age; though they could not appreciate what the chemists were doing to lay the foundation for petroleum chemistry and the creation of better fuels and thousands of products unimagined then.

Just fifty years ago, Spindletop blew in; and began the age of abundant oil and natural gas, and the golden age of those parts of the South that produce them.

The South is producing this day, and day after day, 4,000,000 barrels of oil--two-thirds of United States production. It supplies a still larger part of the natural gas, carried across the country in all directions by great pipelines.

The automobile, huge trucks, bulldozers, Diesels, the airplane, huge electric generators powered by oil or natural gas, a great machine scooping up 45 tons of coal in strip mining or masses of dirt in excavations, have come in the oil age. Good roads, gas for cooking and heating, and the speeding up of work and the saving of time in innumerable ways, have come from these fuels. But it is especially pertinent for us to note that never before had there been a fuel that was suitable for propelling farm machinery in the fields. These fuels brought the great labor-saving machines to the farmer's fields.

In recent years the greatest progress in farm machinery has been in the South. The production of rice, sugar-cane, hay, small grains, sorgo grain, peanuts, and soybeans has been mechanized, and great advances have been made in the mechanization of corn, cotton, truck, and other crops. Electric power milks the cows and cools the milk, broods the broilers and brings them their feed, pumps the water, grinds the feed and shells the corn and saws the wood on many a Southern farm--most farms are electrified. This is a region of farmers so long engaged in farming with their hands, the ancient tools, the horse and the mule. Electric power is also eliminating the drudgery and providing comforts in farm homes. And science and industry have extended the ability of the farmer's ear to hear, as it has for all our ears: he turns on his radio and hears what the prices are in New York or Kansas City. He is in touch with, and a part of, the world-wide marketing system made possible by the communications industries.

But there is still another way of doing work that is most important for the South--the way of the chemical industry: using molecular energy to perform miracles of production. It, too, came into its greatest age beginning about 1900. Chemists learned how to modify the hydrocarbon molecules of nature and to rebuild them to improve on nature with better fuels and other products, and to produce many basic and intermediate industrial chemicals. Hundreds of these synthetic compounds have found their way into industry; and there is practically no limit to the ways in which still other compounds can be made. Among the most important are the plastics, produced in greater tonnage than any non-ferrous metal, and including synthetic rubber. There are also the synthetic fibers--nylon, orlon, Fiber V, chemstrand, dynel, and vicara. The raw materials are wood, linters, corn cobs and the like, coal, oil, and, most important of all, natural gas--products of the South.

Often in the same plant natural gas supplies, at lowest cost, heat for the comfort of the workers, heat for generating electric power, heat in chemical processes in manufacture, and the raw materials used in manufacturing a score of chemical products.

Sulphur and salt are indispensable raw materials for the chemical industry. The South produces 99 percent of the mined sulphur and has mountains of salt. The synthetic detergents, anti-freezes, refrigerants, solvents, silicones, fluorocarbons, paints, and many drugs, are other chemical products for which the South has the raw materials. The South produces its own nitrogenous fertilizers synthetically, and phosphates from its own phosphate rock; and it has 70 percent of the fertilizer industry.

The South is becoming the chemical capital of the world. In the coastal area from Lake Charles to Brownsville alone, besides other chemical plants, there are 80 giant petro-chemical plants, producing 125 organic and 50 inorganic chemicals--ten or twelve billion pounds of them a year. We cannot overestimate the importance of the industry, performing in a maze of pipes a series of chemical reactions, automatically controlled, in a continuous-flow process, speeding up some reactions thousands and even millions of times by catalysts that are used over and over again and again. From such operations come thousands of products, tailored to order, used in tens of thousands of ways, and creating hundreds of thousands of jobs.

Industrial chemistry has created values for the peanut and the soybean; for cottonseed and linters; for surplus sorgo grain by one of the most modern plants in the world on the Texas coast; for citrus fruit growers by development of the frozen juice industry; by use of everything but the squeal in meat packing plants. It provides the farmer with his fuels, insecticides, fungicides, herbicides, and synthetic rubber; and contributes to the manufacture of nearly everything else he must have. Some factories are a sort of agriculture, using bacteria in massive fermentation, or the culture of molds in great vats to make the antibiotics--except that penicillin is now a synthetic in mass production.

Chemical factories are now making synthetic blood plasma for transfusions which may be needed for several million persons at once in case of atomic bombing of our great cities. Millions of pints can be stored in powder form and kept indefinitely--and shipped easily. It is made from acetylene gas, or by fermenting corn sugar, or it appears from preliminary tests, from okra.

To oversimplify, we live in an age of drama, like this:

- Act I. 1906. Einstein develops, by pure mathematics, his formula,  $E = MC^2$
- Act II. 1945. Manufacture of the atomic bomb, following Einstein's theory and using almost all other science and technology.
- Act III. 1951. The radio-active isotopes which are the by-products of the manufacture of the bomb are used throughout the oil industry, from drilling wells to finished products, improving products and creating new ones, lowering costs; so also in many other industries, and in agricultural and medical research.
- Act IV. Some future time. Atomic energy a source of power in industry, and having many other uses.
- Act V. Future. All-pervading benefits to mankind.

The South is, of course, the atomic energy capital of the world. Such are the magic forces at work to make the new South.

Sixty years ago, Memphis had a population of 64,000; Dallas 38,000; Houston 28,000; Jackson, Mississippi 6,000; Atlanta 66,000; and other cities and towns were small in proportion. Most people were on farms. In those days you could not sell a chicken unless you lived near town and peddled it about, or livestock unless you shipped them to Kansas City. You bartered a dozen eggs for a spool of thread. No Grade-A dairies or milk processing plants; no canned goods, no canning plants to buy fruit or vegetables; no dehydrating plants or refrigerators. Virgin longleaf pine sold at a dollar or two an acre, with the land thrown in; hickory had no sale. You could sell cotton. Most people raised cotton--except in areas growing tobacco, sugar cane, or rice. Peanuts, no market. Soybeans or tung nuts--never heard of them. Cottonseed, no market unless you lived near one of the few oil mills, and then only for a little, because the uses of the products had not been worked out. Oranges sold for the Christmas trade, lemons for summer picnics.

No long distance telephoning, few telephones--the first one was only ten years old. No automobiles, dirt roads, the horse-and-buggy and ox-wagon days. Airplanes a fantastic idea. Kerosene a sort of luxury. No bright lights. No paper bags. The farmer did not say "fertilizer"--he said "guano." Most bookkeepers never saw an adding machine or a cash register or a typewriter--and where did the girls get jobs? The doctor carried his drugs in his saddlebags--calomel, blue mass, and quinine.

Ticks on the cows; the cows had mastitis; hogs had cholera; people had typhoid, malaria, yellow fever, and flux, and died of appendicitis without the doctor recognizing the disease. The average life was twenty-odd years shorter than now.

Jobs on the farm paid \$8.00 a month, and sometimes board. Non farm jobs were few indeed, and little better paid.

Without industrialization in the South, conditions might be now far worse than in the 1890's; because we have more than twice as many people.

But, in great contrast, the South has grown to be one of the most advanced regions in the world. According to the figures of the Statistical Office of the United Nations, in 1949 only two foreign nations had a larger total or national income than the regional income to the South, figured on the same basis. The Soviet Union reported a total income for its 200,000,000 million people that was larger by half. India, with ten times as many people, reported a little more than the South had. These figures include some income not actually received by individuals, and in some countries a great deal; nevertheless, it is interesting to make per capita comparisons: The South \$1,000; Canada \$870; Great Britain \$773; Russia \$308; 25 countries less than \$100 and 12 less than \$50; India \$57.

Per capita income to individual's in the thirteen Southern States in 1949 was \$953, in the United States \$1,330. But the increase since 1929 was 156 percent in the South and only 85 percent in the non-South. We are catching up.

In 1949 there was generated in the South 65½ billion kilowatt-hours of electric



energy. This is the mechanical equivalent of 273 million man-years, or of seven "servants" per inhabitant, working 300 days a year, eight hours a day; all at a cost of 16 cents a day per "servant." Total electric energy generated in the South in 1949 was more than in the whole United States in 1925. And power production increased in ten years 3.5 times in the South, 2.4 times in the non-South.

Industry moves south. Nearly all the great manufacturing corporations have branches in the South, some have most or all of them here. We are in partnership with the greatest industrial research organizations on earth, with the most efficiently managed industries there are. Some factories come south for access to markets, some find it economical to be near the sources of their raw materials, others come for a supply of labor, some to locate on the coast for trade with Latin America--altogether we have 57 per cent of the United States coastline, with great ports; some come because of our great inland waters--or just for water, some because they like our climate and find it economical and pleasant, some because it is economical to ship parts (as in automobiles) and assemble them near the market, some because they agree with David Lilienthal that within fifteen years the South will be the leading part of this country by any standard; and all of them come because they know we welcome them.

Many large industries have been built by our own enterprises. And innumerable industries, started by home people, have transformed communities. The resources of every community, it is clear by now, are sufficient to employ all its people with greater productivity and rewards than by crowding all of them on farms. There is a famous example at Gainesville, Georgia. Nine counties around Gainesville, in the 1935-39 period were together producing 50,000 bales of cotton a year, and little else from farms to sell. By 1948 they were producing nearly as much cotton, worth with the seed about \$10,000,000. But with approximately the same number of farm people they were also producing broilers which after processing brought \$60,000,000 into the area. This would have been impossible without processing and other industrial services.

We in the South are coming to use all those magic forms of energy and machinery which twentieth century science and technology have devised; to the end that we may produce, with increasing ease, the greatest abundance of goods and services the world knows.

It is in this unique time of power, machines, science, and technology; better use of all our resources, and economical division of labor and exchange of goods and services--it is in such a time that Southern agriculture is entering its greatest age. It is a declining industry only in the fact that there are fewer and fewer workers in agriculture: as late as 1920, 50 percent; in 1940 less than 35 percent; and now probably less than 25 percent. Such is the way of progress towards abundance in the United States: last year in only one month did farm employment exceed 9,000,000, out of a total of 61,000,000 employed.

Quantitatively, our total farm product is increasing; as is seen when comparisons are made between values of products calculated at fixed prices for successive periods. Yet in 1949 only 14.7 percent--about one-seventh--of total Southern income was derived from agriculture. Manufacturing payrolls were a little larger; value added by manufacture was 52 percent larger; and income from the trades and services was 73 percent larger than income from agriculture.

In this time when cities attract labor from farms and labor is scarce, precious on farms, farmers are finding ways to produce more than ever, including those additional products demanded by the great nonfarm populations, and by industry as raw materials. The farmer who once had six sharecropper families and now has none--has only a son that the army wants--is asked to produce more. He replies, as he must:

Let industry provide the nitrogen that it somehow gets from air, water, and natural gas; the other fertilizers; insecticides, fungicides, serums, antibiotics, feed concentrates and minerals; containers and building materials; transportation--on time; brooder equipment; tools and machines--tractor and attachments, one-man hay baler, mowing machine, feed grinder, cotton picker, duster and sprayer or maybe the airplane for dusting, combine, truck, repair parts and gadgets, power-saw and the like; and give me oil fuels and electric power. If industry does its part, I will produce more than ever we did with six sharecropper families.

By such means, as has been by now demonstrated in thousands of cases, the Southern farm family on a farm of a size adequate for the age of power and scientific agriculture, can achieve an income comparable to that of the typical Iowa farm family. At the same time, by a better occupational distribution of the workers, we can use all the resources available to us, with multiplied productivity of the

workers and higher incomes. Thus, and only thus, can we produce and have the goods and services we want.

The Industrial Revolution has come to the South. If it were not so, the nation would be immeasurably weaker and poorer, its levels of living everywhere far lower; and we of the South would be in a descending spiral of depression and peasantry, little above the state of the peoples of India or Egypt.

But what if all our workers, and not merely some, come to use the powers of work and production available to them now?

The South is in transition. There are disturbing phases. Some old problems are unsolved, new problems arise. Readjustments, especially readjustments in human thinking and attitudes, take time—but they are in process. It is all very new—the industrial age, and especially the age of power machines and science in agriculture; the advance has been swift. Some of our people still have their inhibitions, a hangover from the days of much handwork, simple tools, and little progress. Some still have an inferiority complex, if not about themselves, then about others in the South—an inferiority complex born of troubled past days and of a failure to understand the capacities of our people in this changing South. But all of us, I believe, shall soon become as accustomed to using the new and ever-growing powers of science and technology, in our multifarious kinds of work, as we are to using the rays of the sun. Most of us already have come to understand how it is true, as Walter Lippman said years ago about the South, that whatever men are able to achieve and enjoy anywhere in the world, they are able to achieve and enjoy here.

## *Support for Basic Social Science Development*

*(From the Annual Report of the President  
of the Social Science Research Council, 1949-50.)*

In the last annual report of the Council, the need for basic social science development was stressed. It is encouraging indeed to report a year later that \$865,000 of new funds have been provided for this aspect of the Council's work. They constitute sustained recognition that support and development of research and of research personnel lie at the heart of social science progress. This support comes not for projects of current public interest nor for undertakings justified by their practical application: it is directed rather to the Council's central efforts to advance the development of the personnel, the methods, and the theories that are essential if the social sciences are to meet the multitude of demands that are being made from day to day.

The urgency of public policies and of national and international needs tend at times to overshadow the continuing necessities for strengthening social science knowledge as such. Of course, as a practical matter research workers like all specialists learn by doing, and no meaningful isolation can be maintained between methods or theories and the substantive content to which they apply. Nevertheless, in the financing of research activities we are all familiar with the tendency to justify support in terms of certain social aims that need to be achieved. There is an important distinction, however, between asking the research man to work on a given problem or to justify his request for aid in terms of a policy objective or saying to him, on the other hand: Select the problem in which you are most interested or with which you deem yourself most competent to deal. Obviously this is not an "either or" situation; both approaches must be used. I simply wish to emphasize here that the pressure of events or of circumstances unrelated to research all too frequently determine the matters to which scholarly attention is devoted. A balance of incentives and opportunities must be maintained; otherwise, there is danger that the research man will find himself a "hired hand" and circumscribed in his choice of problems for investigation.

In this connection it can be noted that the study of support for the individual scholar, under way during the past two years, is nearing completion. Although primarily concerned with grants-in-aid, the study has extended to a consideration of the total situations affecting faculty members who desire to carry on independently research of their own choosing. The familiar term, "lone wolf" scholar, may commonly connote an isolated individual in a small remote institution, but opportunities for independent original work are likewise needed by staff members of large universities. There is, of course, at times both stimulus and prestige in being called upon to undertake an assignment deemed highly important by influential associates. On the other hand, the

specialist is usually the best judge of how he can most effectively apply or develop his particular skills and his field of knowledge.

The Social Science Research Council is uniquely situated to encourage research men to consider the needs and problems of their own disciplines and the contributions that can be made across disciplinary lines. This calls for constructive definition and planning of research in new areas of inquiry, and it calls for critical appraisal and evaluation of current research findings. The social scientist as teacher and as practitioner must draw constantly upon our present store of knowledge. It is necessary and proper to expend "intellectual capital" in this way. Research may be thought of as efforts to increase the supply of skills and data. From this standpoint it represents investment with all that is implied in risk-taking, if profits are to accrue and new capital is to be accumulated. Foundation officials sometimes refer to the funds at their disposal as "venture capital" to be invested with a sense of calculated risk. Such attitudes of realism and of enterprise are essential in the support of scientific work. A positive disservice may ensue if we think of research as a commodity merely to be purchased. Of course, routine surveys are often useful and a vast amount of applied work is essential, but when we deal with the forefront of knowledge and experiment in any field we are concerned with adventures in ideas. There is no way of knowing in advance how such efforts will pay off. We do know that it is poor economy indeed not to take chances.

### *The Responsibility of the Social Scientist*

(From the President's Report, S.S.R.C.)

As we have noted, the major foundations are much concerned with the basic development of the social sciences. Substantial support from the federal government through contracts with various institutions has been provided for research, both applied and pure. Indeed, the support of the social sciences and the confidence expressed in many ways in their accomplishments call for a high sense of responsibility on the part of research men themselves. The Council has continuously emphasized the need for more better-trained social scientists. Re-examination of degree requirements is necessary, and more attention to the skills that competent research men must possess. There is, also, need for better organization of research within universities if full use is to be made of the great variety of research talents.

We are sharply reminded, in times of national emergency, of the vital role that all the social science disciplines are called upon to play. At such times we must be much more consciously and rationally aware of how the domestic economy operates if national strength is to be fully realized. When rapid adjustment within the social structure is necessary in order to respond to the demands of mobilization, there is full need for established knowledge of social relations. Even more obvious is the necessity of putting to optimum use all the knowledge we possess of other parts of the world. In World War II the social sciences demonstrated their utility in many dramatic ways.

Social scientists face now the responsibility of determining how the various disciplines viewed as a national resource can be best developed and utilized. This calls for initiative and imagination on the part of social scientists themselves, it calls for more effective organization in universities, and for a higher degree of interuniversity collaboration; it means a more active role for professional associations of social scientists. The Social Science Research Council provides a mechanism for the interchange of ideas and for planning through conferences and committees. While means exist for the mobilization of skills, responsibility rests with each individual social scientist to consider how best to direct his efforts in serving the nation. For some, this will mean public employment; for others, the opportunity will be found on their own campus. Here, the improvement of training and research facilities will be of more importance than ever before. It is up to social scientists to consider what can be done within each institution. In the days that lie ahead, all interested in the social sciences must give careful attention to a proper balance between basic scientific development and research training, on the one hand, and the application of existing knowledge to the meeting of current crucial problems. The social scientist, as such has a special responsibility for maintaining the vitality and raising the standards of research--this is the source from which useful applications must flow and these, like water, cannot rise higher than the originating springs.



## AMERICA'S CHILDREN AT MIDCENTURY:

### *A Report on the White House Conference on Children and Youth*

by

ANNETTE S. BOUTWELL  
Health Education Specialist  
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NOTE: The following account was written from notes taken by Mrs. Boutwell at the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth. Mrs. Boutwell was an official delegate from the Mississippi Agricultural Extension Service.

"Wars and rumors of wars" promoted the feelings, thinking, and decisions made by 5,000 people from all over the United States and from 41 foreign countries when they assembled in Washington, D. C. on December 3rd through 8th at the Midcentury White House Conference. This group, as pointed out by our president, was one with a common interest in peace and security by unifying our efforts in applying available knowledge for the promotion of service and facilities for all children and youth for the development of healthy personalities.

The purpose of the Midcentury White House Conference was to consider how we can develop in children the mental, emotional, and spiritual qualities essential to individual happiness and to responsible citizenship, and what physical, economic, and social conditions are deemed necessary to this development.

The first concern of this group was the important part that parents and the home environment played on child development. The feeling of being loved and accepted was placed on No. 1 for individual security. The child was discussed as a whole unit, rather than by segments. The entire development of physical, emotional, mental, social, and spiritual growth stemmed from the home experiences. The home must be augmented by the school, church, and community experiences for full development of healthy personalities. A child at birth is a personality. The growth of this personality undergoes many changes from the first stage of complete dependency to that of a well-adjusted mature citizen.

The basic points which emerged from the six workshops concerned with the various phases of child development are summarized as follows: (1) The changing needs of each child depend on his individuality, his environment, and particularly his relationship to his parents. (2) The feelings for children on the part of parents and professional people are more important than the techniques they use. (3) Attitudes in giving advice are more important than the advice given. (4) Both boys and girls need to be close to men and women for good emotional development. (5) A general healthy personality is not established once and for all at any age period, but can be strengthened or weakened at any stage in life.

Cultural patterns, economic forces, discrimination -- racial and religious -- are forces which also affect the total development of children. The conflicts with which the world is faced today, and the urgency of these problems has brought people of all societies, professions, and vocations to study needs, evaluate available resources, and combine all efforts for improving all services and facilities for the promotion of healthy personalities for all children.

Plans are underway for the continued study and the promotion of the findings and recommendations of this conference in each state and the countries represented. A start has been made in the right direction. The follow-up programs are essential for continued growth and progress.

Some of the needs pointed up by the recommendations are as follows:

**STUDY AND RESEARCH:** The expansion of research on child development and adjustment.  
**CITIZEN RESPONSIBILITY:** Acceptance of citizen responsibility for providing adequate community programs in education, health, recreation, and social services, making full use of voluntary and public resources.  
**FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION:** Availability of education for family life through education, health, religious, and welfare agencies.

**EDUCATION:** Expansion of educational facilities and opportunities so as to meet the increasing demands.

**HEALTH:** Adequate health facilities and services for all children and youth.

**RECREATION:** Provision of recreation centers for all children with trained leaders. Also, youth should be given the opportunity for participating in recreational planning.

**RELIGION:** Recognition of religious and ethical concepts as essential to the development of spiritual values. The expansion and strengthening of religious services, personnel, and activities to all groups and in all areas.

**SOCIAL SERVICES:** Community education regarding the role of special services in adoption, the greater protection to the child, and the development of qualified adoption agencies.

**ECONOMIC AID:** A greater variety of community services to increase the real income of lower income groups.

**DISCRIMINATION:** Support of the President's Civil Rights program. Prompt steps to "eliminate all types of racial and religious segregation."

**THE HANDICAPPED:** Expansion of programs to provide physical, mental, emotional, and occupational needs.

**MIGRANTS:** Extension of protection and services to children of migrants, especially in regard to transportation, housing, sanitation, health and educational services, social benefits, and labor exploitations.

**EMPLOYMENT:** Extension of guidance and counseling services in schools, employment offices, and youth serving agencies and the recognition of the emotional factors involved in vocational adjustment.

**HOUSING:** Recognition of health, recreation, and social needs in housing development.

**COURTS AND THE POLICE:** Coordination of preventive and treatment functions of social agencies, police, courts, institutions, and after-care agencies with regards to children in trouble.

**THE PROFESSIONS:** Instruction in human growth and change in all professional schools. The provision of in-service training opportunities. Recognition that all professions have a "core of common experience in fundamental concepts of human behavior", including the need to consider the total person as well as any specific disorder.

**MASS COMMUNICATION:** Acceptance of social responsibility on the part of industry and community agencies using television and other mass media.

**DEFENSE:** Improvement of personnel, evaluation, placement, vocational guidance, and counseling, by civilian and military agencies to promote the utilization of our total human resources. Sharing by all individuals and groups of sacrifice in the present emergency, and some use of the services of men with disabilities.

**INTERNATIONAL:** Full support to voluntary efforts and governmental programs of an international character in behalf of children and youth.

### *Economics Study Shows Southern Advance*

The American South, termed twenty years ago the country's No. 1 economic problem, may be over the hump in economic development, according to two Duke University economists, Calvin B. Hoover and E. U. Ratchford. Under the sponsorship of the National Planning Association and its Committee of the South, they have just published Economic Resources and Policies of the South, a 460-page book on their four-year study of the region.

At the news conference, Hoover reported a significant upturn in the South, saying "The ratio of agriculture to industry is shifting in favor of industry. There is an increase in the standard of living. There has been a shift from cotton to other crops, particularly dairy....By and large this has not meant unemployment, as industries came in and took those displaced. New industries brought in additional services--movies, barber shops, libraries. There is a possibility of developing these trends much further." He recalled that in the Nineteen Thirties the per capita income in the South was less than half that of the remainder of the country, and that it now was up to 65 per cent. So marked has been the agricultural shift, Mr. Hoover said, that the South was now no more dependent on foreign markets than any other part of the country. He stressed that cotton production had moved West "most strikingly, so that in 1949 60 per cent of the cotton was raised west of the Mississippi, and California now is fourth-ranking cotton production state." The multi-purpose development by the Tennessee Valley Authority he characterized "part and parcel of the whole advance," but not its cause. Education is still a major problem, Mr. Hoover said, then noted that with 19 per cent of the national income, the South had to educate one-third of the children of school age.

In their book, the economists called for more diversification of Southern agriculture and more transfer of Southern labor from farm to factory. They challenged the belief that agricultural controls and price supports would in the long run serve the South best. They pointed rather to the manpower and materials resources of the area as of high potential for defense production. On tobacco, they said that under the various agricultural acts, "the growers now have an effective monopoly, operated through agencies of the United States Government, enforced through Federal laws and regulations, and financed in part by Federal funds." They held that when the Government was desperately searching for revenue in recent years some of the profits in tobacco "would have been a relatively painless source for such revenue," that instead went "to tobacco growers and the owners of tobacco land." As to cotton, they discussed numerous marketing plans, then recommended compensatory payments as more feasible than any. They said that this plan would have a lower aggregate cost to the consumer-taxpayer than the present system and would "avoid freezing the production pattern in Southern agriculture....It would not inter-

(continued on page 36)

# Mississippi Folkways

by

HESTER SHARBROUGH WARE<sup>1</sup>  
Mississippi State College

## Editorial Foreword

Mississippi is widely known as the Magnolia State—a very fitting title, for one finds the evergreen magnolia everywhere on the Mississippi countryside, all the way from Tennessee River hills to the Gulf Coastal plains. The Magnolia has, however, come to be associated with the plantation tradition represented by the triumvirate of moonlight, magnolias, and mint juleps. But Mississippi is by no means all plantations, and the magnolia thrives no less in the hill sections, which comprise the greater part of the state, than in the Delta and bottom lands. The moonlight in the hills is more often associated with moonshiners; and the hillbillies make and take their corn straight, without benefit of mint. It seems difficult for outsiders to conceive of Mississippi in any other terms than flat plantation country, floods, and bales of cotton; but the true character of the state diverges considerably from this pattern.

The average Mississippian is a hillbilly living on a small farm in the northeastern, central and southeastern parts of the state. He and his fathers before him have usually grown cotton, often merely for personal use; but in recent years the hillbilly has grown less and less cotton and has turned more and more to subsistence crops. He is not the degenerate yokel who exists in greater numbers in the Faulkner novels than on the Mississippi countryside (although Mr. Faulkner's characters are by no means divorced from reality). Rather he is a self-respecting, moderately educated, morally respectable citizen. He bears many of the marks of the frontier and pioneer life. His folkways are certainly more representative of Mississippi than are the posturing of the planters and the crooning of the cotton field Negroes.

The Mississippi hillbilly is predominately of the so-called Anglo-Saxon stock, usually transplanted from the Atlantic coastal South. His ancestors migrated from the east by flat-boat or wagon and were in many cases squatters on the federal domain. In the old South this average Mississippian raised a few bales of cotton on a small farm and occasionally owned one or two slaves; but whether slaveowner or not, he had a sense of collective ownership which seemed to justify his speaking of "our slaves." In the Civil War he was the footsoldier who served grudgingly under aristocratic officers and looked up his nose at the snobbish "hoss" troops. In the New South he has been the hard-pressed farmer who joined the Grange or the Alliance and in the 1890's threatened to become a Populist. Politically, he did not come into his own until after 1900, when the primary election law enabled the hillbilly to elect as governor such champions of the common man as James K. Vardaman. Since that time the small farmer has often been swayed by champions of the people but just as often he has aligned himself with respectable upper classes. In fact, he has been the political weight which has determined the balance of power in Mississippi politics. His social and economic life are Mississippi at its earthiest and best. It is he who comprises the typical Mississippian of today, and his folkways are the folkways of Mississippi—J. K. B.

## Folkcrafts

Mississippi folkcrafts are scarcely different from those of neighboring Southern states. They involve the sort of thing that "subsistence" living produces. Many a backwoods Mississippian grows up, for example, without ever having seen a store-bought broom. Rather, it is a custom to go out into the broomsage fields each fall and cut or "wring" a supply of broom straw for the winter. This is carefully tied and stored. From time to time a bundle of straw about three inches in diameter is taken from the bundle, smoothed, evened, and wrapped securely on the large end with a twine. Some people actually secure "broom corn" seed and grow their own material for broom making. Broom corn looks very much like sorghum cane, except that the heads are much longer and more bushy. The stalks are cut after the heads have matured, the seed are curried off with a curry comb, and the heads are bundled together and tied just as with broom sage.

Gourds are grown extensively and at maturity are used as dippers, bowls, bottles for storing seed, shot and powder containers.

Horns have also been used for carrying powder. Hunters of early days would select long crooked horns and by fitting a block of wood in the larger end and reaming the smaller end to fit a cork, they made a powder container that would carry probably as much as a pound of powder on a hunting expedition. Sometimes a piece of twine

<sup>1</sup> The article that follows is an excerpt from a chapter on Mississippi folkways prepared by Mrs. Ware and J. K. Betterworth for a book soon to be published by the Rural Youth Conference under the title, Gems From Our Rural Heritage. Mrs. Ware prepared that portion of the study dealing with folk crafts, games, and music.



was tied into either end of the horn so that it could be swung over the shoulder. This container had a two-fold advantage of keeping the powder dry and of funnelling the powder into the end of the gun barrel. Another use of horns was at mealtime. The housewives could blow their "dinner horns" in a way that they would almost wake up the dead, or as one colored hired hand expressed it: "When Miss Annie blows that horn, it's twelve o'clock all over the world."

Before the days of washing machines, practically every household had a battling block. It was out of a log, usually white oak, about two feet in diameter and three feet high. A huge paddle, about three feet long and an inch in diameter, made the equipment complete. Clothes were soaked in soapy water overnight, rinsed the next morning, and boiled for an hour or two in a big wash pot in which homemade soap had been used. Then the steaming clothes were taken from the pot, one garment at a time, and put on the battling block and "spanked" thoroughly until practically all the water had disappeared. It was a common expression the "Mrs. So-and-So is washing today, because I hear her battling clothes."

Soapmaking is an old folkcraft. A good steady flour barrel would be used for the ash hopper. It was filled with ashes from the fireplace or from a hickory log heap and set upon an elevated platform with a slight slope. Holes were bored in the bottom of the barrel. Every few hours water was poured on top of the ashes and as it filtered through, out came red lye that was caught in a container. When a sufficient quantity of lye was produced, it was boiled in a cast iron wash pot, into which were thrown some old bones and some turpentine resin. The contents were boiled and stirred constantly until thickened. Then the mixture was allowed to cool, after which it became a very thick jelly-like substance called lye soap. It then went to the soap barrel, which was buried in the ground in the old smokehouse.

Woodworking, especially whittling, has ever been a common practice among rural and small town men. From the knife have come such products as bread trays for kneading bread and mixing dough, spoons, crochet needles, churn dashers, churn tops, and butter knives. Often woodworking on a larger scale has been attempted, the products being such things as ox-yokes, willow porch furniture, cane-bottom chairs, cedar chests, wine and cider presses, split-oak baskets, and even small boats. Boat-making was quite extensive in the flooding days of the Delta.

For women there has always been quilting. But there are other distaff crafts. Some hand woven woolen coverlets are still made in Northeast Mississippi. In many sections corn shucks are worked into chair bottoms, stools, and place mats. In the Southern part of the state long-leaf pine needles are used with raffia to make trays, baskets, small brooms, and the like. In the Delta there is a small palmetto which has been used for braiding such objects as homemade hats.

Mississippi's Choctaw and Chickasaw Indians have preserved many of their crafts. Choctaws in Winston and Neshoba Counties still do bead work and make ceremonial belts and necklaces. Baskets of peeled cane are often made. Some homemade vegetable dyes are to be found. Indian women commonly wear homemade red and yellow dresses with square ruffled yokes and a full skirt reaching to the ankles. Indian men produce Indian ball sticks and balls and make blow guns and throw-sticks for killing birds and rabbits.

#### Folk Games and Music

The most common folk game, or amusement, is the square dance. A generation ago the most popular tune was "Skip to My Lou," which was rendered with dancing, singing, and clapping. A fiddle was usually employed. The Methodists and Baptists generally were suspicious of fiddling for dancing, or even for musical games.

An interesting accomplishment was that of learning to "beat straws" to the rhythm of a "breakdown." This was done with the use of a medium size broom straw about twelve inches long. The trick was done by holding the straw between the thumb and forefinger of the left hand and placing the thumb of the right hand underneath the lower end of the straw and the index finger above the straw. All this added much to the noise, if not to the harmony. Sometimes two straws were used, one being held in either hand, with a resultant beating on the strings of the violin similar to that of beating on a drum.

Among the fiddle tunes were such gems as "The Preacher and the Bear:"

"Oh the preacher went out a-hunting  
'Twas on one Sabbath morn  
It was much against his religion  
But he carried his gun along.

But he met a great big grisseley bear  
 He shouted, "Dear Lord,  
 You delivered Daniel from the lion's den  
 And Jonah from the belly of the whale  
 Now deliver me from that bear."

Another popular tune was "Old Molly Hare:"

"Old Molly Hare, what you doing there?  
 Running through the cotton patch as hard as she can tear.  
 She won't pick cotton and she won't pull hay<sup>2</sup>  
 She won't do nothing what the white folks say."

On Sunday afternoons in rural communities young folks used to "swarm and light" at someone's home, where there was often an old pump organ, and gather round and sing. Frequently the only books were "Sunday School Song Books," sometimes with shaped notes, containing such songs as "Jesus Is Passing By," "When the Roll is Called Up Yonder," and "Why Not Tonight?" Community Sings are still a common practice in rural sections. Each year thousands of Sacred Harp singers meet for all day singings in many parts of the state.

<sup>2</sup> Pulling hay refers to crab grass. After frost the grass is about knee high and beginning to fall over. It is pulled by hand and used for straw mattresses.

### Television and the Family

by W. P. Carter

(NOTE: The following report was submitted by Dr. Carter at the recent meeting of the Southern Council on Family Relations, at Alexandria, Louisiana)

Herewith are presented the results of a number of recent studies of the impact of television on the family in the United States.

One careful study on "Television and Family Life" has been completed at the University of Southern California, under the direction of E.C. McDonagh. He studied 800 families, half of whom owned television sets and half of whom did not. The findings were as follows: (1) Two-thirds of the television-owning families stayed home more than formerly, and did much less visiting. A typical comment was, "We never go anywhere anymore." (2) Conversation in the home decreased greatly in the television-owning families. "Television is making the family an audience at home, but not an intimate group characterized by spontaneous talking and confiding. Even table talk is greatly reduced so that family members may rush back to their favorite programs." (3) More than two-thirds of the television owning families read much less than the non-owning families, even though they were matched perfectly for age and educational status.

Another study in New Brunswick, New Jersey, showed that in 781 homes the daily reading of books had not been materially affected, but that 25 per cent less time was spent in reading magazines than formerly. Another survey in Stamford, Connecticut, showed that adult members in one-third of the television owning families were reading fewer books. In a study of 3000 families in "Videotown" near New York, some 78 per cent of young children and teen agers watch programs on an average night, while 52 per cent of grown sons and daughters, and 30 per cent of the parents do not watch programs regularly. Children were found to control the programs much more than adults.

A study in Chicago compared the effects of television on low income and high income families. It was found to mean more to the low income families because the high income group had more sources of entertainment. "The low income families interviewed claimed that television helped to keep children at home and the family together. Twenty-five per cent of this group said they were going less frequently to taverns and cocktail lounges; while only 3.7 per cent felt that television had brought any objectionable influences into the home. But 25 per cent of the high income families thought that television had objectionable effects on the children .... such as "mealtime difficulties" and "homework problems."

In most of the studies parents commented that television tended to keep the children "at home", "off the streets", and "occupied". Sociologists have found that television has kept many children out of wholesome face-to-face play groups in their out of school hours, thus depriving them of opportunities for creative learning and character development of play groups.

A survey in Los Angeles showed a high percentage of young children staying up until 10 p.m., undergoing excessive eye strain and loss of sleep, and many becoming irritable the next day. The conclusion was that there was a great need for more parent education on the proper use of television. In one study it was found that young children could view an average of 13 brutal murders a day in Los Angeles, and that they were fascinated with these types of programs as much as more wholesome types. Many surveys and studies, however, did bring out many favorable effects of television. They emphasized the wholesome entertainment and fun for the whole family when the best programs were viewed, the fact that youth were kept off the streets and away from other unwholesome recreations and bad companions, less problems of discipline for parents in bad weather, and many valuable educational lessons.

# TRAINING NEEDS OF MISSISSIPPI'S LABOR FORCE:

## Implications for Research

Note: On March 14th the Social Science Research Seminar met to consider the research potentials of the industrial labor force in Mississippi. The panel consisted of Lee B. Gaither, moderator, Dorothy Dickins, J. P. Gaines, Harald Pedersen, E. F. Mitchell, T. A. Kelly, and B. M. Wofford. The moderator's summary statement, together with the written contributions of a portion of the panel, are given herewith.

### SUMMARY STATEMENT

by

LEE B. GAITHER

Department of Resource-Use Education

One of the factors which will determine the pattern of industry that develops in Mississippi is the labor force. Consequently, members of the panel attempted to examine the nature of the present labor supply for the purpose of identifying areas in which research is needed.

Labor force. Although the term "labor force" as used by the U. S. Bureau of the Census includes the population between the ages of 14 and 64, all of the people in this group are not available for employment. Youths in high school and college, inmates of institutions, the chronically ill, and a large number of married women are not actually in the labor force. Then, too, the size of the labor force is also affected by wage and salary inducements. For example, high wages will persuade many married women to seek employment who would otherwise remain out of the labor market.

Importance of the labor force in location of industry. Labor is one of the key factors in production, but the relative weight that this factor plays in determining the location of industries varies with the type of industry. Other factors such as proximity to raw materials, transportation facilities, power, or nearness to markets may weigh more heavily in locating new plants. For example, the availability of pulpwood in the area is one of the chief considerations in establishing paper mills. Sufficient labor can usually be obtained if the plant is able to compete successfully with other employers in the area for the services of workers. Most industries employ a large number of unskilled and semiskilled workers who can be trained in a short time to perform routine assembly or processing tasks and a comparatively small number of skilled workers who require a longer training period. Inasmuch as the few skilled people who are needed can be persuaded to migrate to the area, it is not essential for a community to have a large reservoir of skilled labor in order to attract industry.

Nature of Mississippi's labor force. The largest potential source of labor for industrial employment in Mississippi is the negro population. In the last decade, large numbers of young negro males have migrated to other states because they could not obtain comparable employment opportunities in Mississippi. Of course, public policy will continue to determine whether this age group is lost through migration or afforded a chance to contribute to improving the economy through accepting industrial employment in Mississippi. In many rural areas of the state there are large numbers of white youth and small farmers who are available for industrial employment. As a whole, the labor force, both negro and white, is unskilled and has had very little or no experience and training directly related to industrial employment. Despite these handicaps, the efficiency of Mississippi industrial workers is rated high by employers.

Training needs. One of the primary factors in determining the training needs of the labor force is the pattern of industry which the people of the state want to develop. If the goal is merely attracting new industries to provide jobs, the task is a relatively simple one of adequate industrial arts training in the schools to develop desirable attitudes, establish work habits, and discover skills. On the other hand, if the goal is to establish a pattern of industries which will process native raw materials, fabricate finished goods, and pay relatively high wages, the training needs of the labor force are more complex. In any case, industrial arts training is a sound foundation for both skilled and semiskilled workers. Industries usually prefer to operate their own training programs for specific jobs; consequently, it is not often advisable to launch publicly supported vocational training programs which emphasize preparation for specific jobs in a particular plant. Vocational education should continue to be the means of providing adequate training in broader fields.

Areas for research. Among the promising fields for further investigation, the following seem to stand out:

1. Income which may be realized by developing and utilizing the potential skills of the labor force.
2. Determination of the pattern of industry which should be developed to yield the greatest returns to the people of Mississippi.
3. Influence of present mores and customs on willingness of rural people to accept industrial employment.
4. Effects of expanding industrial employment on training needs of farm workers.
5. Problems involved in changing family habits of rural families who accept industrial employment.



## CONTRIBUTIONS BY THE PANEL

### Determination of the Training Needs of the Labor Force in Mississippi

BY HARALD A. PEDERSEN

Division of Sociology and Rural Life

A discussion concerned with the occupational skills and training needs of the labor force as this relates to industrialization in Mississippi may follow at least two approaches. First, the assumption may be made that vocational training should be for specific skills which are required or will be required by industrial plants in the state. Second, vocational training may be viewed as a broad industrial arts curriculum which is designed more to uncover the potentials of the student rather than to train him for a specific vocation. In the first case information about the current and future distribution of the occupational demands of industry in the state is mandatory and under the second assumption such information would be desirable.

In either case the problem of predicting the future occupational distribution in the state becomes an important one. The most direct method of prediction would be to project the historical trend five or ten years into the future. The resulting distribution would be a very unreliable estimate on which to base action. Textile and lumbering industries, both high unskilled labor requirement industries, have been over-represented in the industrial picture in Mississippi. The assumption that this over-representation will remain seems unjustified.

The alternatives to an historical projection presuppose a planned program for recruiting industry for the state. Such a planned program of industrial development should aim at securing for the state a balanced industrial program which would utilize the natural resources in the state, produce perishable items for local consumption, and produce a fair proportion of finished commodities for consumption on the regional and national market. Under this assumption it would be possible to predict by analogy with other states or by expansion of the individual plant demands to the statewide production picture.

Following this procedure it seems that a necessary first step to an intelligent discussion of the training needs in the state must be a realistic evaluation of the industrial potential of the state in terms of a balanced industrial program. Some of the questions that must be answered include: What resources do we have in the state that can be processed effectively here? What products are needed for local consumption? What products can be produced in the state for the regional or national market?

### Impact of Industrialization on Farm Labor Training Needs

BY J. P. GAINES

Department of Agricultural Economics

For industrialization to progress, labor must be available at a price that will permit profitable operation. Such labor may be drawn from two sources: (1) the unemployed, or (2) lower forms of employment (in terms of financial remuneration) than that offered by the industrial development.

The financial remuneration for most labor on the farm is smaller than that in industry. For that reason, industry tends to draw heavily upon farm labor and produces far-reaching changes in the agricultural pattern as it expands. This brief discussion can only point out some of the more general ramifications and indicate areas where research may make worthwhile contributions.

Industrialization, and the subsequent attraction of farm labor, should tend to increase farm wages, other things being equal. The farther industrialization progresses, the greater is this effect. To counteract this increase in production costs, farmers seek higher output per worker, turn to low labor requirement enterprises, or accept smaller profits.

Higher output per worker may be achieved by using labor-saving equipment or through farm mechanization as it is more popularly termed. A fundamental change in the combination of the basic factors of production ensues with capital replacing labor and becoming increasingly important. For this substitution to be least painful, and in order that efficiency remain high during the transition, farmers must understand the kinds of labor-saving machinery that can be used economically and how to use it to greatest advantage. Economic research should anticipate and guide this change. That is the principal purpose of the present research program on farm mechanization which is being conducted by the Department of Agricultural Economics.

Also, since cotton, the principal farm enterprise in Mississippi, is a high labor requirement crop and cannot be completely mechanized with present equipment (except under very limited conditions), research on the profitability of alternative enterprises becomes more important. Farmers want to know whether to turn to enterprises that can be successfully mechanized such as corn and soybeans or to those that require relatively little labor such as beef cattle and sheep.

This movement toward industrialization has repercussions not only in the quantity but also the quality of the farm labor force. In this connection, many important questions arise. For example, does industry attract mostly the high quality or low quality farm worker? The attraction probably is greater for the high-aptitude individual. Do farmers make special concessions in order to keep these persons while letting the less desirable leave? Or, does the time lag that usually accompanies farm changes permit high aptitude workers to move to industry and leave the farmer with low-quality labor with which to shift to and operate a mechanized farm?

With mechanization and the greater use of specialty and precision machinery, farm labor must be more skilled. Selection, training, and supervision of labor is more important. Carefully planned and timely conducted research can be helpful in this process.

## The Labor Force and Mechanization in Cotton Production

BY DOROTHY DICKINS

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In a study of "The Labor Supply and Mechanized Cotton Production," which appears in Bulletin 463 of the Mississippi Agricultural Experiment Station, the writer secured information on the schooling, occupations, vocational training and occupational histories of members fourteen years and over in white and Negro families, in a representative rural area of the Yazoo Mississippi Delta. It was shown that 58 per cent of the 816 individuals fourteen years and over in the white families of the study had 8th grade schooling or less. In the Negro families, including 728 individuals fourteen years and over, 3/4 of the heads, 1/2 of the homemakers and "other male" members and 1/4 of the "other female" members had 4th grade schooling or less; that is, they were illiterates or near-illiterates. Not over 6 per cent of the group had had any high school training. The main occupation of 97 per cent of the Negro family heads and 85 per cent of the white family heads was farm operation or farm wage or salaried work.

About 40 per cent of the white family heads, 75 per cent of the white homemakers and white "other male" members and 85 per cent of the white "other female" members had not had experience in non-farm work. About 47 per cent of the Negro family heads, 70 per cent of the Negro homemakers, 82 per cent of the Negro "other males" and 88 per cent of the Negro "other female" members had had no gainful work experience except that connected with farming. When there was non-farm work experience it was almost always in some unskilled or semi-skilled type of work. About 3 per cent of the Negroes and 17 per cent of the whites had had or were taking vocational training.

This study showed that most members worked long hours in cotton chopping and picking season, but rested much of the remainder of the year. There were only 9 per cent of the Negro family heads and 13 per cent of the Negro homemakers who had not done farm work in September preceding the interview. The percentages for whites not working on the farm in this period were 26 and 56 respectively. In other words, the traditional pattern is for most of the members to work in the cotton crop during certain seasons of the year. The question might be asked here—if there will be difficulty in developing new family habits that must be developed if the family transfers to industry. What are the factors that will promote, what are the factors that will retard, happy, successful transfer? Are there some forms of industry more suitable than others for individuals who have always lived and worked on cotton farms?

In this study of the labor supply there is available a good deal of un-published material on schooling, locations and present main occupations of sons and daughters no longer members of these families; that is, adult children who have left home. Fifty-one per cent of the sons and 49 per cent of the daughters of white families were doing non-farm work, while 53 per cent of these sons and 37 per cent of these daughters in Negro families were engaged in non-farm work. Married women without gainful occupation were classified by the occupation of their husbands. About 90 per cent of the farming sons and daughters and about 55 per cent of the non-farming sons and daughters of white families lived in the state, while about 95 per cent of the farming sons and daughters and about 25 per cent of the non-farming sons and daughters of Negro families lived in the state.

What opportunities, for instance, do cities in other southern states, do cities of the Middle West, provide which cities of Mississippi do not provide? One way of replying to this question is to compare types of occupations of sons and daughters of Negro families in cities of the Middle West with those of Mississippi. Sons and sons-in-law in cities of the Middle West were more often reported as being wage workers in steel foundries, auto plants, bakeries, stock yards, meat-packing plants. Sons and sons-in-law in Mississippi were more often reported as being truck drivers, working in saw-mills, and doing common labor. Daughters in cities of the Middle West were reported most often as doing maid and waitress work. A number were reported as working in commercial laundries, in dry cleaning plants, in canning factories, and in meat-packing plants. Maid, laundry, and waitress work were the kinds most often pursued by daughters residing in cities of Mississippi. In other words, areas outside the state offered more factory work to sons and daughters of Negro families than did Mississippi.

Daughters in white families and both sons and daughters in Negro families with more schooling had more frequently located outside the state. There was no difference in schooling in sons of white families in and out of the state.

### NOTE

The next meeting of the Social Science Research Seminar will consider "Other Factors Affecting the Industrialization of Mississippi." Dr. Thomas A. Kelly will be moderator of this session, and the panel will consist of Dr. James H. McLendon, Prof. W.E. Christian, Jr., and others. The seminar will convene on April 11, at 3 P.M., in the northwest seminar room in the basement of the library. All members of the faculty who are interested in participating are urged to be present.

For the benefit of those who do not know the details of the project now being undertaken in the Social Science Research Seminar, it might be pointed out that the purpose of this activity is to explore the study possibilities in certain needed areas of social science research, particularly such as would entail group research cutting across disciplinary lines. A large number of campus social scientists have indicated their interest in such a research program, and one of the major objectives of the project is to determine upon some specific areas of research that should be exploited by this interdisciplinary team. At present the potentialities of research in the general area of industrialization in Mississippi are the chief concern of this study group. Its monthly meetings will continue during the current semester to devote the discussions to the industrialization problem.

# *The Student Life at Mississippi State College*

## *Part II*

by

JOHN K. BETTERS WORTH

"The discipline is mild but firm," wrote Stephen D. Lee in his report to the Board in 1883.<sup>1</sup> Lee had doubtless learned from his experience as a general in that restless assemblage of independent-minded individualists known as the Confederate Army that the only successful means of control was that which carried with it the good-will of those it affected. A glance at the records of disciplinary action in the early years of A. and M. College may impress one of a later generation with its firmness rather than its mildness. Nevertheless, one must remember that formal rules of conduct are in the first place a reflection of the ideal standards of an age, that many a regulation was honored largely in the breach, and that boys endured what they were accustomed to enduring at that time, kicking over the traces whenever the laws of the Medes and Persians aroused more self-pity than a body could contain.

The first published set of regulations available dates from 1887, and it would appear that up to that time the rules in force were those originally adapted from Alabama Military Institute, with appropriate changes to suit the college. Each student was expected to sign a matriculation pledge adapted from the University of Alabama, as follows:<sup>2</sup>

Being now about to enter as a student of the Agricultural and Mechanical College, I do hereby acknowledge my obligation and bind myself to obey all its laws and regulations. And I pledge myself, ON HONOR, that so long as I am a student of the College during vacation, I will not have in my possession any deadly weapon, except such arms as are furnished by the military department, without the consent of the President or Faculty. And I do further pledge myself, ON HONOR, that I will not join or form any connection with, either directly or indirectly, any secret club, society, fraternity, or other organization, composed in whole or in part, of students of the College, or attend the meetings of, or wear the badge of any such secret organizations. And I do further pledge myself, ON HONOR, that I will not treat with disrespect, by shouting or otherwise, any applicant for admission to the College, and will not engage in 'hazing' or any other maltreatment of a student lately admitted into the Institution.

Under military discipline, the student was required to have in his possession, subject to the weekly room inspection, three pairs of "white Berline gloves," one gray undress blouse, two pairs of gray pantaloons for winter wear, "with a black stripe, one inch wide, down the outer seam," one "forage cap," a supply of uniform "standing" collars, and such clothing as might be sued for "working suits." The student's hair was to be worn short. Students were perpetually meeting formations, for class, meals, church, work squads and the like, and one marched to and from classes, meals, and chapel, with the "Section Marcher" calling cadence. There was always a host of student sentinels on duty, particularly in the dormitory. The sentinel was to visit student rooms regularly, "look in the door and ask, 'All right?' The room orderly shall reply to the sentinel...and report any one absent, or any one visiting without permission." There were also "superintendents of divisions," who kept check upon the sentinels and room orderlies. Besides room orderlies there were hall orderlies, who were encharged with reporting "any student who shall create any disturbance of any kind."<sup>3</sup>

The list of do's and don'ts included a host of small matters. In the dormitory curtains were to be placed in the windows, "as per pattern." No musical instrument might be played during study hours or on Sunday. The student was forbidden to "affix to the walls of his room any map, picture, or piece of writing, or drive a nail in the walls or timbers of the Dormitory," without the permission of the Commandant. Moreover, that generation of whittlers was forbidden to "mark, cut, or in any manner deface or injure" the buildings.<sup>4</sup> One might not maintain on the campus "a waiter, pet horse, or dog." There should be no cooking or preparation of food in the dormitory, nor might a student have any provisions in "his room or elsewhere," or give

<sup>1</sup> Biennial Report, 1880-3, 9.

<sup>2</sup> Miss. A. and M. College, Regulations, 1887, 4-5; Minutes of the Board, October 6, 1886.

<sup>3</sup> Regulations, 1887, 8-14.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid., 14-15.



"an entertainment."<sup>5</sup> Considerable anxiety usually arose among college officials at commencement, when visitors often took up their abode in the students' rooms, despite the regulation forbidding one to "introduce a citizen into the Dormitory during study hours in the day, or at any time during the night," except by permit.<sup>6</sup>

Students were forbidden to throw things out of windows, now was water to be thrown from the door into the hall. Furthermore, one should not "throw stones or missiles of any description, in the vicinity of the Dormitory, without permission of the Commandant of Students." One wonders when such permission might be obtained! Also "running, loud talking, scuffling, whistling, singing, or unnecessary noise in the Dormitory" were strictly prohibited. Whenever a student left his room while sentinels were on duty, he should report his departure and return and give his authority for the action. If there were no sentinels, one must tell his roommate where he was going!<sup>7</sup>

There were very strict rules against unauthorized absence from the campus. One might not leave his room at night for longer than thirty minutes without becoming subject to investigation as to whether such absence was for "immoral or improper purpose," or whether the absentee had gone to "any place without the limits prescribed to students." Absences of as much as two hours in daytime were a shipping offense. In fact, absence from the campus at any time without permit was not to be granted, and permission was to be given only to "visit in private families, or to attend divine worship, or upon such occasions as shall be deemed proper exceptions" by the authorities.<sup>8</sup>

Drinking and gambling were specifically forbidden. In 1880 the legislature passed an act prohibiting the sale or giving away of "vinous, spiritous or malt liquors" within five miles of the campus. Druggists alone might sell liquor for "medicinal and sacramental" purposes. Prescriptions involving the use of alcohol had to be "countersigned by the mayor of Starkville." The physicians were required to make affidavit with the chancery court that prescriptions would not be made unless the alcohol were "needed as medicine," and the mayor had to keep a book in which the names of all receiving prescriptions were listed, the book to be available for inspection by the grand jury. Moreover, not over one quart a week might be prescribed for any one student's health! There was, however, a quaint exception to all this red tape in that "any professor of the Agricultural and Mechanical College, may, when occasion requires, give such liquors to any student thereof, to be used medicinally."<sup>9</sup> The college reinforced this legislation, which Lee had been instrumental in obtaining, with the rule that no student should "drink, or bring, or cause to be brought, within student's limits, or have in his room, tent, or anywhere in his possession, wine, porter, or any spiritous or intoxicating liquors or fruits, upon pain of being dismissed." It was also a shipping offense to go into a place where liquor was sold, and any student found under the influence of liquor or whom the president believed to be a habitual drinker, should be dismissed.<sup>10</sup> The Law of 1880 reinforced the college regulation by fine and imprisonment in the county jail.<sup>11</sup>

Gambling also fell under legislative as well as college ban. The legislature took the precaution to forbid the operation within the famous five mile limit of any "billiard table or ten-pin alley for public play or use."<sup>12</sup> Realizing that what was banned publicly might maintain a flourishing underground existence in the dormitory, the college authorities forbade the student to "play at cards or any other game of chance, or bring or cause to be brought upon the premises of the college, or to have in his room, tent, or anywhere in his possession, the cards or materials used in such games, on pain of being dismissed, or otherwise less severely punished."<sup>13</sup>

The drinking and gambling regulations were exceedingly difficult to enforce, for student ingenuity was remarkable. At the 1883 commencement it was found that certain students who had been allowed to operate concessionary "stands" had sold liquor, whereupon they were summarily dismissed.<sup>14</sup> It was also a frequent occurrence for the laboratories to be broken into to obtain alcohol.<sup>15</sup> Moreover, the town of

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, 19.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, 15-15.

<sup>9</sup> Mississippi, *Laws*, 1880, 637-39.

<sup>11</sup> Mississippi, *Laws*, 1880, 639.

<sup>13</sup> *Regulations*, 1887, 19.

<sup>14</sup> Lee to C. I. Germany, July 19, 1883, President's Letter Book.

<sup>15</sup> Lee to Capt. A. H. Brantly, June 14, 1887, *ibid.*

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, 15.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, 19-20.

<sup>10</sup> *Regulations*, 1887, 18-19.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*, 1880, 639.

Starkville seems to have been somewhat negligent in observing the 1880 Law. In 1887 the Board of Trustees was complaining that students were purchasing liquor in the town, not only in violation of the law but also in violation of an original pledge of this saloonless community to maintain high moral standards if the college were located at Starkville.<sup>16</sup> Two years later Lee was reporting to the collector of internal revenue that "two or more" local drug stores were permitting liquor to get to the students.<sup>17</sup> Although the college authorities called upon the Grand Jury to act, nothing appears to have been done, and in 1892 Lee wrote that the "liquor laws are dead letters. The Grand Juries, farces."<sup>18</sup> In that same year a very popular member of the junior class was shipped for drunkenness, whereupon the entire class took the pledge to abstain from drinking while connected with the college, in order to secure the reinstatement of the offending student.<sup>19</sup>

President Hardy continued Lee's campaign against drinking. In 1900 he was seeking to get the "full penalty" for blind tigers who supplied students with alcohol.<sup>20</sup> At this time it seems that much of the liquor was being introduced on the campus by express, and in 1901 a faculty committee was assigned to confer with the Starkville express agencies to induce them to cooperate in stopping the "importation of intoxicants consigned to students."<sup>21</sup> In 1915 the trustees employed a guard "for the purpose of better nightwatching and apprehending the sale of intoxicating liquors on the campus..."<sup>22</sup> In the "dry" twenties, the legislature passed a law allowing the college authorities to license public vehicles in an effort to control liquor traffic by taxi. As a result, in 1922 three taxi drivers were outlawed, and early in 1923, after a revival of bootlegging activity, the licenses of four other drivers were cancelled.<sup>23</sup>

Although liquor continued to seep in, a special "opinion" election in 1930 showed the student body favorable to the enforcement of the prohibition laws.<sup>24</sup> In 1934 President Critz reported "only a very limited amount of drinking of alcoholic beverages even at the dances, and then only at the final Student Association dance."<sup>25</sup>

Drunkenness as a punishable offense has always, of course, concerned the disciplinary authorities no end. Many and varied have been the offenses. None, however, was quite equal the novelty of a case arising in 1911, when a student accused of being "drunk and disorderly in the dormitory" pled that he had been hypnotized. Whereupon, the faculty in solemn rage moved that on account of "the disturbance which hypnotism seemed to be causing in the College,...the Military Department [should] issue an order against hypnotism."<sup>26</sup>

Gambling was even more difficult to eradicate than drinking, the evidence being somewhat more difficult to smell out. It would appear that visits off campus to fairs and athletic contests were the occasion for much addiction to games of chance. In 1885, after the student body had been allowed to go to Aberdeen to a fair, Lee wrote the exposition authorities that he had learned that fifteen to twenty students had gambled, losing from \$5 to \$30 each, much to the horror of the "moral boys" who went along.<sup>27</sup> In the early years the prevalence of card playing and gambling in the dormitory was of great concern to Lee, who shipped five men in the 1890-91 session, only to permit their return after the student body took the pledge to abstain for the remainder of the year. During the next session student meetings were held, and in an effort to stamp out gambling a vigilance committee of students was set up with a student jury to try cases; and in the spring of 1892 the situation was still serious enough for Lee to bring the problem before the board, which ordered enforcement of regulations and forbade card-playing among the faculty.<sup>28</sup>

In 1915 Hightower vigorously denounced certain of the faculty for playing cards with students or "with others in the presence of students," and threatened dismissal of the offending staff members. He also pointed out that the regulations against

<sup>16</sup> Minutes of the Board, July 5, 1887.

<sup>17</sup> Lee to L. W. Shields, February 11, 1889, President's Letter Book.

<sup>18</sup> Lee to L. B. McGhee, February 16, 1892, *ibid.*

<sup>20</sup> Commercial Appeal, November 22, 1900.

<sup>22</sup> Minutes of the Board, January 18, 1916.

<sup>24</sup> Commercial Appeal, April 10, 1930.

<sup>26</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, November 27, 1911.

<sup>27</sup> Lee to L. E. Houston, November 10, 1885, President's Letter Book.

<sup>28</sup> Lee to W. B. Nelson, March 10, 1892; Minutes of the Board, June 13, 14, 1892.

<sup>19</sup> Lee to L. B. McGhee, February 16, 1892, *ibid.*

<sup>21</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, January 12, 1901.

<sup>23</sup> Biennial Report, 1923, 3.

<sup>25</sup> Minutes of the Board, June 29, 1934.

card playing on the campus either by students or by professors <sup>while</sup> was still in effect and faculty violators would be asked to resign.<sup>29</sup> Although card playing restrictions were eventually relaxed, efforts to stamp out gambling have continued through the years with reasonable success.

Smoking did not come under the college ban at first, although Lee advised against the practice.<sup>30</sup> It was the recurrence of cigarette fires, particularly one in 1886, that forced Lee to issue an order against smoking in the dormitory, the academic building, or in or near any other building on the campus. At the same time guards were posted to enforce the regulation and inspect rooms.<sup>31</sup> In 1888 smoking outside of rooms during "academic exercises," (classes, that is) was banned.<sup>32</sup> Under Hardy the campaign became more intensive. In 1900 the new president initiated a campaign to "eradicate cigarette smoking at the college" on the ground that the habit was "injurious."<sup>33</sup> So strenuous was Hardy's campaign that a student "disturbance" was reported at the college resulting from the crusade.<sup>34</sup> There is, however, no record of this occurrence in the faculty minutes. At any rate, the revised regulations of 1909 still contained a prohibition on cigarette smoking with dismissal as the penalty.<sup>35</sup> As time passed the rule was modified so that smoking could be engaged in by students in the dormitory and hospital.<sup>36</sup> Nevertheless, President Smith was exceedingly strict in the matter of cigarette smoking, and one of his first actions on becoming president was to threaten harsh measures against smokers.

Irregularities connected with the compulsory wearing of the military uniform were legion. Apparently the students were quite bored with their military regalia, even if the uniform was supposed to be attractive to women. The faculty minutes are full of student petitions for exceptions, either in the form of special class uniforms or in the relaxation of the requirements for wearing the uniform off the campus. In most cases the seniors were allowed special uniforms, but other classes were usually left to bear their indignities as best they could. As for dispensing with the uniform off of the campus, particularly on social occasions, the college withstood the pressure as long as possible. In 1913 the issue reached the point of provoking a faculty discussion, which merely resulted in a decision to stand pat.<sup>37</sup> In 1917, after the reorganization of the cadet corps as an R.O.T.C. unit under Congressional action of 1916, the G.I. uniform was adopted for dress occasions and drills.<sup>38</sup> However, "cadet blue" continued to be worn to dances and meal formations.<sup>39</sup>

The last stand of the uniform came with the decline of military discipline in the twenties. In 1921 seniors were permitted to wear civilian clothes on week-ends.<sup>40</sup> In 1922 retreat, chapel formation, sentry duty, guard mount, Saturday inspection, and meal formations were dropped.<sup>41</sup> In 1930, with the abandonment of military discipline at the college, Critz naturally received permission from the board to dispense with uniforms except when students were on military duty.<sup>42</sup>

In the early days when the spirit of the code duell still persisted, even if the lawbooks had tried to exorcise it, the college found the matter of personal quarrels a serious problem. Students were forbidden to strike or "in any manner offer violence" to each other. Nor was maltreating of the citizens of the community to be tolerated. There was also a ban on the use of provoking language or gestures toward other students or any action designed to "traduce or defame" another student. If personal relations, in spite of all this, did get out of hand, resort to combat was strictly forbidden. No student might send or accept a challenge to fight or be the bearer or such a challenge, or in any way "countenance or promote a duel," or upbraid anyone for refusing a challenge. Moreover, anyone who knew of any such challenges was enjoined to report the fact to the authorities of the college. Students were also forbidden to sign any "certificate or statement relative to personal altercations,...or to transactions of a personal or private nature."<sup>43</sup> Naturally there was considerable difficulty in the enforcement of such regulations. There were actually challenges to duels, none of which ever reached the pistols and paces stage. It was

<sup>29</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, December 15, 1915.

<sup>30</sup> Lee to W. A. Dromgole, November 18, 1885, President's Letter Book.

<sup>31</sup> Lee to Lt. W. L. Buck, February 20, 1886, *ibid.*

<sup>32</sup> *Ibid.*, September 19, 21, 1900.

<sup>33</sup> Regulations, 1909, 55.

<sup>37</sup> *Ibid.*, February 10, 1913.

<sup>39</sup> Reflector, March 23, 1918.

<sup>41</sup> *Ibid.*, October 4, 1922.

<sup>43</sup> Regulations, 1887, 21.

<sup>32</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, February 27, 1888.

<sup>34</sup> Commercial Appeal, January 12, 29, 1901.

<sup>36</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, February 27, 1911, Nov. 16, 1912.

<sup>38</sup> Minutes of the Board, April 14, 1917.

<sup>40</sup> *Ibid.*, November 22, 1921.

<sup>42</sup> Minutes of the Board, November 27, 1930.



much easier to choose fists on the spur of the moment, and of combats of this sort there were plenty. Sometimes, students of a more savage bent actually resorted to knives in their quarrels.<sup>44</sup> In November, 1911 a student was suspended for the remainder of the session for "striking a cadet with something other than his fist..."<sup>45</sup> On a later occasion one student was shot in the shoulder because he visited another's room to while away the time and "joke as usual," while the occupant was "on the bed studying." The annoyed scholar promptly left his room, loaded his gun, and the next morning was in the headlines. He should have been in "Believe it or Not."<sup>46</sup>

Student combinations, or strikes, were an ever present concern of the college authorities. The regulations forbade "all combinations, under any pretext whatever," and it was a shipping offense against any student who, "in concert with others, shall adopt any measure, under pretext of procuring redress of grievance, or sign any paper, or enter into any written or verbal agreement, with a view to violate or evade any regulation of the College, or do any act contrary to the rules of good order and subordination, or who shall endeavor to persuade others to do the same."<sup>47</sup> Although there were no strikes in Lee's time, there were occasions when student resistance to authority became a serious problem. In the early years the preparatory students seem to have been a considerable thorn in the college side, the impression having got abroad that the sub-college department was somewhat of a reformatory. As a result, a number of problem children seem to have been dumped on the college, with somewhat calamitous results.<sup>48</sup> But the "preps" were by no means the only offenders. In January, 1882 the commandant reported a deplorable "condition of moral sentiment" among the students, and on January 20, 1883 Lee wrote that on the previous night the students had been "riotous."<sup>49</sup> In 1889 seven students were summarily ordered to leave on the evening train after having showed an "insubordinate spirit" by "hooting and yelling at the Senior Capt. Stone, W. B., burning him in effigy and placing on the grave inscriptions which were disrespectful..., besides being very vulgar, obscene and sacrilegious."<sup>50</sup> In 1897 a rebellious state existed after the shipping of the two students who had criticised the college authorities in the Reflector.

A considerable amount of dissention appears to have arisen at times within the senior class. Not only did this group often abuse its special privileges, but also it was always bitterly envied by the other students. In 1885 the faculty was of a mind to cancel special senior privileges in the name of good discipline.<sup>51</sup> The seniors appear, however, to have continued to go their own sweet way. In 1907 Dr. Magruder was concerned over the senior class exercises at commencement lest there "be a tendency on the part of some members of the class to make offensive jokes on members of the Faculty."<sup>52</sup> Moreover, in the famous student strike of 1908, which will be discussed in a chapter on the Hardy administration, it was the senior class that took the leadership. In 1912 another strike, which will be described in a chapter on the Hightower administration, was also led by seniors. In later years there were several more disturbances and a number of threatened ones. Under President Hardy student resentment against the strictness of the discipline had exploded on several occasions, and in December, 1927 a strike over the fact that Christmas holidays did not begin until December 21 was narrowly averted.<sup>53</sup> Most of the rebelliousness, however, seems to have found its genesis in the mess hall, which has always been a ready victim of student ire, no matter what other grievances were involved.

Hazing was forbidden by very stringent regulations, but its existence from the beginning was inevitable. The regulations of 1887 forbade students "wantonly" to abuse "the person of another student, by playing unjustifiable tricks upon him."<sup>54</sup> No serious violations seem to have occurred in the early years, but in 1893 five students were expelled for hazing.<sup>55</sup> The College Reflector usually lent its assistance to the eradication of the hazing spirit both by article and editorial. In 1903 the Reflector emphasized the fact that college life was a time for the cultivation of friendships, and the practice of "bullying" connected with hazing was not a satisfactory means for accomplishing this end.<sup>56</sup> In an editorial at the same time reference was made to the existence of hazing on the campus to a marked extent "five or

<sup>44</sup> Lee to A.W. Lake, November 9, 1888, President's Letter Book.

<sup>45</sup> Commercial Appeal, February 14, 1918.

<sup>46</sup> Reflector, April, 1905, 7-8.

<sup>49</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, January 23, 1882; Lee to C. H. Campbell, January 20, 1883, President's Letter Book.

<sup>50</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, February 14, 1889.

<sup>52</sup> Ibid., May 13, 1907.

<sup>54</sup> Regulations, 1887, 21.

<sup>55</sup> President's Letter Book, letters by Lee to five parents, January 31, 1893.

<sup>56</sup> Reflector, December, 1903, 5-6.

<sup>45</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, November 13, 1911.

<sup>47</sup> Regulations, 1887, 21-22.

<sup>51</sup> Ibid., September 15, 1885.

<sup>53</sup> Commercial Appeal, December 18, 19, 1927.

six years ago." In 1903, however, the practice seems to have reached a new low, thanks to the existence of a "New Students' Committee" organized by old students for the purpose of making the adjustment of newcomers to the life of the collegian as painless as possible by the absence of hazing.<sup>57</sup> That the anti-hazing campaign was successful is apparent from a statement in 1904 in the Reflector to the effect that "for several years our College has been free from any of those disgraceful affairs called hazings."<sup>58</sup> Nevertheless, where physical violence was lacking, there were other types of quasi-hazing possible. In 1911 the faculty included "the tormenting of students by other students" as a shipping offense.<sup>59</sup> It was, in fact, almost impossible to prevent some sorts of hazing, and nearly every president had to confront that problem.

Reflector editorials and criticism from the outside did little to halt the minor forms of hazing.<sup>60</sup> When military discipline was abandoned in 1930, hazing was vigorously condemned under the new regulations, and in October, 1931 a student committee of fifteen started a campus campaign against hazing.<sup>61</sup> Meanwhile, upper-classmen, no matter what the rules were, never have failed to exercise the privileges of rank. In the early years the novice served his period of humiliation in such menial tasks as the filling of coal scuttles, the disposal of ashes, the bearing of pails, and sundry janitorial services habitually required by the high and mighty of the lowly, particularly in anticipation of Sunday morning inspections.

In the 1920's freshman humiliation took such forms as the wearing of a green badge on the uniform, a ban on the use of the west entrance to Lee Hall, and exclusion from the post office between 11:30 A.M. and 12:15 P.M.<sup>62</sup> Moreover, for years there existed in the upper-classman's dormitory room an instrument of disciplinary authority known as the "Freshman paddle." In recent years only the Freshman haircut and the Freshman cap have survived, and the G.I.'s have scorned even these humiliations. Perhaps as the callow youth regains his numerical superiority in the freshman class the paddle will reappear on the campus.

The ingenuity of man, ably assisted by the Devil, being what it is, the college student who was bent unto sin has always found many a way to make discipline a lively matter at A. & M. Compulsory chapel and church exercises by their very nature challenged the sinner to exercise his talents. Church attendance was required in the early days unless a student had a written excuse from his parents, and chapel attendance was required with no exceptions allowed. Lest he attempt to misbehave under this compulsion, any student who conducted himself "indecently or irreverently while attending Divine Service," or dared to "profane the Sabbath," would be dismissed "or otherwise less severely punished."<sup>63</sup> That the regulations regarding conduct at church were sometimes forgotten is suggested by a ditty appearing in the Reflector in 1905:<sup>64</sup>

Who only in church would dare  
To whisper to a girl during prayer.  
And make the whole congregation stare?  
The College Boy.

The faculty, too, were corralled into church as interested observers and roll-takers. It has been said that in the early years when the faculty were enjoined to attend church, one professor deliberately cast his lot with the local Episcopal Church, where regular services were impossible because of the scant number of parishioners!

Student pranks were almost as numerous as the students. Arson and theft sometimes masqueraded as innocent horseplay, but at times got out of hand. For example in 1898 a student with no humorous intent whatsoever attempted to "burn the dormitory" in order to be sent home.<sup>65</sup> So-called innocent pranks involving fire were numerous, and the amazing survival of the dormitory from combustion is a testimony to the watchful care of Providence. Petty theft was occasionally reported. Those who engaged in stealing from other students generally received swift and arbitrary handling. Stealing from the college and its faculty was, however, often regarded in the nature of a minor sport. Such crimes as "going to an improper place for stolen turkeys" and "bringing (them) into the dormitory," and the removal of garden and orchard products generally

<sup>57</sup> Ibid., 8.

<sup>59</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, February 1, 1911.

<sup>61</sup> Biennial Report, 1931, 6; Commercial Appeal, October 8, 1931.

<sup>62</sup> Reflector, December 13, 1922.

<sup>64</sup> Reflector, March 1905, 7-8.

<sup>65</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, November 28, 1898; Minutes of the Board, February 7, 1899.

<sup>58</sup> Ibid., October, 1904, 22-23.

<sup>60</sup> Reflector, October 5, 1926.

<sup>63</sup> Regulations, 1887, 20-21.

went unpunished, the culprits being too numerous and the evidence too expendable to allow for effective punitive measures.<sup>66</sup> Also, some pranks, like one reported in the Reflector in 1905 involving the theft of a case of beer from a professor's back porch, seem to have gone unreported.<sup>67</sup>

In 1907 there existed a "Pick-'Em-Up Club," which at Christmas publicly announced its thanks to the professors for "keeping such nice fat turkeys and chickens and allowing them to roost in such convenient places." The same club also expressed its appreciation for other "donations," including a "box of crackers and jug of tomato sauce," furnished by the proprietor of the "oyster shack;" "the ingredients for our hot chocolate," provided also by the "shack;" and "free transportation up town every night during Christmas week in chartered box cars and on cow-catchers," unwittingly donated by the M. & O.R.R.<sup>68</sup>

For the most part, whatever occurred in the way of pranks and practical jokes rarely reached serious proportions. Someone might paint stripes on the president's white horse and another might give an unfashionable haircut to the same animal; but whatever anger or ill-will lay behind such stunts was soon dissipated, and the administration usually found it advisable to let bad enough alone.

To revise an old adage, college boys will be boys, and that with impunity, as a humorous verse in the Reflector indicates:<sup>69</sup>

Who goes to town on Saturday Night  
With heart so gay and pocketbook light,  
Ready for fun or for flight?  
The College Boy.

Who, when his daily prayers should be said,  
And all the good people should be in bed,  
Makes racket enough to raise the dead?  
The College Boy.

Who treads the walk with great big feet,  
And sings "Home Sweet Home" along the street  
And robs the good citizens of their sleep?  
The College Boy.

Who turns the plank walk upside down,  
And goes rambling all through town  
Making echoes for miles around?  
The College Boy.

Who hums around so terrible late,  
And moves the sign boards as well as gates,  
And brings such things to an awful fate?  
The College Boy.

• • • • •

Who into a banana car would break,  
And declare the locks a very poor joke,  
And tell the authorities 'twas all a mistake?  
The College Boy.

Certainly the most annoying cases of student fractiousness involved firearms. Despite college regulations, such things as "Nigger Poppers" would appear on the campus in contravention of Lee's orders against them.<sup>70</sup> Cannon would often turn up in the most unexpected places. It was great sport to fire a cannon "under the Arches of [the] Dormitory." It was even greater sport to drag the weapon to town to be fired in the vicinity of Mr. Sellers' Girls' School. Also, a torpedo would somehow be propelled from the freshman section of the dormitory into the "prep" section. Firecrackers, too, both in and out of season, would often shatter the academic quiet of the campus.<sup>71</sup>

For culprits with a passion for anonymity one of the favorite pranks was to yell from the dormitory window, particularly to the embarrassment of faculty members. Nothing was better calculated to upset the dignity of a passing group of professors than for a smart aleck to yell "hep" at them from the depths of the dormitory.<sup>72</sup> Sometimes, the shouting from the windows was directed at ladies passing, the action often being accompanied with loud whistling. Usually, when hauled before the faculty for trial the culprits innocently pretended they were unaware of the presence of women anywhere about, but the faculty steadfastly refused to be convinced.<sup>73</sup>

Perhaps most student offenses might be attributed to nothing more than boredom or a very human tendency to get fed up with it all and want to let off steam. The bell-ringers, for example, would often unintentionally, but probably just as often with malice aforethought, neglect to ring the bells on time.<sup>74</sup> Then, there was always the case of the bugle being sounded by some unauthorized person, sometimes a false alarm of fire being the result.<sup>75</sup> Finally, there was the student, whose name is now legion, who "had

<sup>66</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, April 29, 1889, December 15, 1899.

<sup>68</sup> Ibid., December 1907, 199, 200.

<sup>70</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, April 22, 1881.

<sup>72</sup> Ibid., March 19, 1884.

<sup>74</sup> Ibid., December 5, 1905.

<sup>67</sup> Reflector, April 1905, 8.

<sup>69</sup> Ibid., March 1905, 7-8.

<sup>71</sup> Ibid., Jan. 13, Nov. 14, 1882; Jan. 15, 1883; June 9, 1884.

<sup>73</sup> Ibid., March 22, 1908.

<sup>75</sup> Ibid., December 18, 1905.



out recitations on several instances and on this particular after-noon, had been on the ball ground, instead of at recitations." Incidentally, the class-cutter in question was shipped!<sup>76</sup>

For the guilty punishments other than dismissal were generally made to suit the crime. Except for new students, the accumulation of one hundred demerits was a shipping offense; but the process whereby these demerits were obtained along the way generally involved no little penance, usually in the form of confinement to the campus and/or "extra walking." That the latter was not a very satisfactory tonic for chronic offenders is suggested by the fact that in 1892 the faculty were earnestly seeking "some penalty, more stringent than extra walking and less severe than dismissal."<sup>77</sup> Such a punishment was apparently never found; and, as a consequence, many a young sinner whom today the faculty might treat with greater leniency was sent homeward for an enforced vacation.

Expulsions were by no means very numerous for those days of strict discipline. After the trying-out period of the first several years, the student body was a goodly crew, thanks to expulsions and voluntary withdrawals upon the part of those who "could not stand 'the racket.'"<sup>78</sup> Usually when Lee would send a boy home, a letter of careful explanation also went along. In one case Lee would advise that an insolent youth be sent to a school where there was no military discipline. In another he would suggest that a "little boy" was too young to be at college, the solicitous General often saving such a youngster and his parents the embarrassment of a formal trial by the faculty. Occasionally Lee would advise the quiet withdrawal of a student, as was the case with a nephew of Governor Lowrey. There was usually a word of encouragement to the effect that if the offender should ever mend his ways, he might be allowed to return, for Lee was always willing to "give a boy a chance to recover himself if he shows any effort to do so, for if he does not he will continue to go in his old ways."<sup>79</sup>

Sometimes, Lee's relations with offenders and their parents were quite unhappy. "I do not like the Spirit of your letter," wrote Lee to an angry parent in 1885. "I am not in the habit of receiving such letters, & being scolded as you try to do."<sup>80</sup> In one case Lee had to remind the parent that the wayward son had not only been guilty of falsehood and habitual absenting of himself from religious services but also had borrowed money from Lee to pay a "Debt of honor" and had failed to repay in full, whereupon the young man departed very much in the General's disfavor.

At times, faculty trials ended in unfortunate scenes. On one occasion a high spirited youth, having been informed of his sentence in a case involving insubordination, chose to display his natural talent even more effectively by violently tearing off his chevrons in the presence of the faculty and throwing one on the floor as he exclaimed against his treatment. Then, leaving the room, he remarked in the hearing of faculty members that "he was going to leave this damn hole anyway." Needless to say, the faculty promptly assisted the boy in carrying out his threat by expelling him forthwith.<sup>81</sup>

The perennial disciplinary problem was constantly in the minds of the presidents, who in many cases were compelled to resort to the wisdom of Solomon. Often the faculty would place the decision in a case squarely upon the president with a buck-passing proviso to the effect that the "case be referred to the president for a moral lecture and such other punishment as seemed wise and proper."<sup>82</sup> Apparently this personal handling of disciplinary cases soon became too much for the busy presidents, for in 1913 a Committee on Discipline was set up to take care of future cases.<sup>83</sup>

In the late twenties military discipline made its last stand. President Walker, who was a stern disciplinarian, sent many a student packing, sometimes amid considerable resentful feeling on the part of the student body. With the coming of Critz the entire system of military discipline was abandoned, and in 1930 discipline was entrusted to a Dean of Men. In place of the old order with its many regulations, Critz laid down what he called "a broad principle of student conduct."<sup>84</sup>

Every student is required at all times to conform to the ordinary rules of gentlemanly conduct, to be truthful, to respect the rights of others, to be punctual and regular in attendance upon all

<sup>76</sup> *Ibid.*, March 2, 1908.

<sup>78</sup> *Chickasaw Messenger*, December 23, 1880.

<sup>79</sup> Lee to Lowrey, May 5, 1882; to O.H. McGinty, September 19, 1885; to W.L. Jackson, December 8, 1885; to Fred Wright, November 22, 1888, President's Letter Book.

<sup>81</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, March 20, 1892.

<sup>83</sup> See Minutes of the Committee on Discipline, 1913 *et. seq.*

<sup>84</sup> *Biennial Report*, 1931, 5.

<sup>77</sup> *Ibid.*, February 29, 1892.

<sup>80</sup> Lee to W. A. Drangole, November 22, 1888, *ibid.*

<sup>82</sup> *Ibid.*, April 29, 1912.

required exercises, to apply himself diligently to his studies, and to have due regard for the preservation of college property.

Soon military discipline, like the military uniform, had been relegated to the military department in its official dealings with the R.O.T.C. students.

Critz reported excellent discipline as a result of the new order. In 1934 he said that he had noted "a marked improvement in the conduct of the student body both on and off the campus...."<sup>85</sup> Humphrey too, commended the students in 1935 for their "unfailing good conduct."<sup>86</sup>

Only after the advent of World War II, which brought military training to the campus, not to mention a civilian student body of rather unripe years, did the tone of discipline change. In 1944, the civilians were placed under a set of regulations that smacked very much of the old order:<sup>87</sup>

1. Regular study hours shall be from 8 to 10:30 p.m. with lights to go off at 11 p.m.
2. There shall be sufficient room inspections by the officer in charge of quarters to see that students comply with the dormitory regulations.
3. All students shall be required to be in their respective rooms during study hours unless excused by the officer in charge of quarters. Conditions conducive to study shall be maintained during study hours.
4. Absences from the College beyond a limit of five miles shall not be permitted except by written permission, in advance, by the Student Personnel Officer.
5. Each instructor shall report to the Student Personnel Officer, by 1 p.m. on Saturday, all student failures for that week. Students failing a subject shall be required to attend supervised study or remedial instruction from 8 to 10:15 each night, Monday through Friday, of the ensuing week. During the time that a student is required to attend supervised study or remedial instruction, he shall be denied the usual privileges and prerogatives accorded students who are passing all of their courses.
6. Persons charged with the destruction of property, drinking, gambling, or any other act of conduct unbecoming to a student of Mississippi State College, shall be reported to the Discipline Committee by the Student Personnel Officer.
7. Class absences shall be reported daily to the Student Personnel Officer.
8. There shall be an absolute ban on smoking in classes and laboratories.

Fortunately, the coming of veterans of the Second World War soon changed the picture, and in the late forties the student body returned to a state of disciplinary maturity.

As the college grew in size and the close personal relationship between faculty and students that prevailed in the early years became difficult to maintain, there was considerable talk of setting up a system of faculty advisement. At first counseling was hardly conceived of as more than a matter of getting new students assigned to the professional schools on the campus.<sup>88</sup> In 1913 worry over student failures brought talk of a "better system of personal touch" to salvage the delinquents. Subsequently, a committee worked out a "Student Advisor System," but nothing seems to have been done until December, 1917, when President Smith's "General Efficiency Committee" recommended the setting up of the program. However, all that seems to have happened was that an "announcement" was made in chapel concerning "the readiness of the Faculty to be of service to the students as far as possible in the capacity of advisors."<sup>89</sup>

Apparently the 1917 gesture was too half-hearted to impress the students, for in 1919 the faculty were again engaging in "considerable talk," the tenor of which was that there ought to be "some agency" for guiding students in their curriculum choices.<sup>90</sup> Finally, in 1926, a step toward actual guidance came with the inauguration of a week of orientation for Freshmen.<sup>91</sup> Also, during their first semester new students were given orientation lectures one hour each week.<sup>92</sup> Under Humphrey a faculty committee

<sup>85</sup> Minutes of the Board, June 29, 1934.

<sup>87</sup> Minutes of the Administrative Council, May 25, 1944.

<sup>89</sup> *Ibid.*, February 17, May 19, 1913; December 19, 1917.

<sup>91</sup> *Ibid.*, February 24, 1926; *Commercial Appeal*, July 11, 1926.

<sup>92</sup> *Commercial Appeal*, September 10, 1926; Minutes of the Faculty, January 17, 1927.

<sup>86</sup> *Ibid.*, January 25, 1935.

<sup>88</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, October 17, 24, 1910.

<sup>90</sup> *Ibid.*, February 26, 1919.

devised a comprehensive guidance program, but except for the adoption of a student rating sheet to be filled out at the completion of the college career, nothing more seems to have been done, and the advent of the Second World War more or less left the remainder of the program in suspension for the duration.<sup>93</sup> The war ended, President Mitchell set up a guidance division under D. W. Aiken, and a program of training of faculty members in counseling was undertaken.

Having to reach the student's stomach as well as his head the college has always had a problem on its hands in negotiating the perilous passageway in between. One of the first wails of complaint to be noised about the state was against the college mess hall, and a student in 1881 professed to the Walthall Pioneer that he "didn't like the way they fed."<sup>94</sup> Actually, the food was probably far above average, and the first steward, Capt. Wat Lucas, who was a Noxubee County planter, does not seem to have been niggardly with the boys. Lee always boasted that the food bill was so low that a student through his "labor" earnings might pay most of it. In some cases this actually was the case. At any rate, board costs seem by comparison with those of later times to have been ridiculously low. In 1888-89 the cost averaged \$8.65 per month for each student, a sum which included besides the usual food levy such additional items as "breakage of crockery and glassware, oil used in lamps of students while studying, delicacies for sick students," and "policing of the dormitory and chapel building!"<sup>95</sup> The average for the first nine years was \$8.57.<sup>96</sup> In the depression-ridden nineties costs reached a new low of \$6.94 in 1897.<sup>97</sup> President Hardy continued the downward trend. In 1902-3 the monthly average dropped to \$6.29, and there were some months in 1903 when it reached \$6.05.<sup>98</sup> One reason for the considerable reduction under Hardy was apparently his earnest desire to make it possible for poor boys to attend the college, a scheme that was uppermost in his mind. Lower costs did not, however, always bring the desired results insofar as student opinion was concerned, and it was the deterioration of food and eating conditions in the mess hall that engendered much of the resentment leading up to a student strike of 1908, particularly the fact that a new mess hall, which had been promised for Thanksgiving of 1907, was delayed.<sup>99</sup>

What the ordinary menu in the early days consisted of we may learn from a description by one of the students, Patrick Fontaine. "We have as much to eat here," he said, "as we want. Viz—loaf bread, biscuits, macarone, muffins, beef, and molasses, and either tea, coffee, or milk..., but I have never had a piece of cake since I left...."<sup>100</sup> Students sat in the mess hall according to whether they were drinkers of coffee, tea, or milk, which beverages were provided at separate tables in large pitchers. Military discipline prevailed at the table, and students were held to strict accountability for their conduct in the mess hall, their private opinions of the food notwithstanding. Of course, criticism of mess hall fare would have existed had the menu consisted of nectar and ambrosia. Being an ancient butt of jokes, the mess hall probably received credit for being a great deal worse than it was. On one occasion, the Reflector published an alphabet in rime, in which, of course, "M" stood for mess hall, "...with things good to eat; It's only a dream, why not let me sleep!"<sup>101</sup>

In the 1906 Reveille a doggerel poem about the mess hall seems to have made the place good or bad as the exigencies of rime demanded; but some of the verses were amusing, if not exactly factual:<sup>102</sup>

While the eaters are the keenest,  
And the bacon's not the leanest,  
Still dishes empty clearest  
In the mess hall.  
.....

The sip is of the truest  
In the mess hall;  
Hunger's always surest  
In the mess hall;  
Salmon's not the rarest—  
And by no means the dearest,  
And yet it acts the queerest  
In the mess hall.  
.....

Beefsteaks are the thickest,  
Macaroni is the slickest,  
And biscuits give out quickest  
In the mess hall.

Life is not the sweetest  
In the mess hall;  
For the major's eyes are fleetest  
In the mess hall;  
Stacks of wasps' nest tower proudest,  
The major yells the loudest.  
The menu is the grandest (?)  
The bolognas are the d—dest  
In the mess hall.

<sup>93</sup> Biennial Report, June 19, 1935; Minutes of the Administrative Council, September 7, 1939, September 9, Nov. 23, 1941.

<sup>94</sup> Walthall Pioneer, February 4, 1881.

<sup>96</sup> Ibid., 1883-3, 11; 1884-5, 12; 1886-7, 15; 1904-5, 6.

<sup>98</sup> Ibid., 1902-3, 41.

<sup>100</sup> Patrick Fontaine to Mrs. S. C. Fontaine, March 13, 1892.

<sup>102</sup> Reveille, 1906, 83-84.

<sup>95</sup> Biennial Report, 1888-9, 15.

<sup>97</sup> Ibid., 1896-7, 11.

<sup>99</sup> Reflector, Oct., 1907, 17, 24-25; March, 1908, 253-4.

<sup>101</sup> Reflector, Feb., 1908, 205.



Certain of the allusions of this piece of verse may require explanation. "Zip" was, of course, molasses. "Wasps' nest" was the loaf bread. The bologna was an old joke. The flies were old, but no joke. In fact, in 1904 the board had ordered Hardy to do something to rid the mess hall of flies, as a result of which a fan had been installed to discourage their entrance into the building.<sup>103</sup> The erection of the new Gothic mess hall in 1922 provided a more romantic atmosphere, even if the food were not always the fare of kings. The cafeteria style of service was also adapted at this time, largely as a result of a campaign of the students led by the Reflector.<sup>104</sup>

Student government was a more or less novel idea in the first years of the college. In fact, the only student participation there seems to have been that enforced under military discipline by student officers, who acted no doubt more in accordance with rigid regulations than the dictates of conscience. Needless to say, the military aspect of campus life did place important responsibilities upon the individual to whom a duty was delegated by the authorities, and excellent training in leadership was afforded the man placed in such a position.

Student opinion often functioned spontaneously in the absence of formal channels of action, and the effect generally was excellent, even if occasionally the well-meaning inquisitors were more just than merciful, particularly in cases involving "conduct unbecoming a student and a gentleman."<sup>105</sup> In 1903 a "Peeping Tom" who had molested a woman student was given a coating of tar and feathers, although the job was somewhat botched. In the interests of "college discipline" the faculty had to expel those taking part in the demonstration, but prompt subsequent action by the board permitted the students involved to be "readmitted to the college during the term of dismissal."<sup>106</sup>

In 1884 another incident involving a moral question had brought rather summary action from the student body. On Sunday afternoon, April 27, 1884, half a dozen "negro women, some or all of whom were strumpets," had debarked from the afternoon train from Starkville; whereupon "thirty or more students armed with switches" proceeded to administer punishment to the lot of them. A special committee of the faculty was charged with making a report on the incident with recommendations for punishment. The outcome was an acquittal of the "vigilantes," the faculty being careful to point out that while it did not countenance "the spirit evinced by the lawlessness shown in the action of the students," it did appreciate "the necessity for prohibiting notoriously bad characters from frequenting the grounds (to the scandal of the college) since they had been frequently warned of by the President," and consequently the faculty could but "express their conviction that the indignation of the students was just and attending circumstances were such as to very materially palliate their conduct."<sup>107</sup>

Another form of more or less spontaneous student self-government appeared in cases where the student body would take a pledge, particularly against drinking or gambling, in order to save a student or students who were threatened with expulsion. We have seen how a "vigilance committee" undertook to rout gambling in 1893. Occasionally, a student jury would try and dismiss one of their fellows, and the rigor of the punishment sometimes was even greater than that of the faculty, which always recognized the right of appeal and sometimes even reversed a decision.<sup>108</sup>

One of the major issues involving student cooperation with the faculty was that of "Jacking" on examinations. In 1885 the problem became so serious that the faculty passed resolutions re-emphasizing school regulations against "plagiarizing," after an incident involving a large portion of the sophomore class.<sup>109</sup> In 1887, the "pernicious habit" was again disturbing the administration, and more stringent measures were adopted.<sup>110</sup> As time passed the practice became a menace also in the matter of written assignments, particularly the "theses" required of all seniors in the early years.<sup>111</sup> President Hardy inaugurated a vigorous campaign against "jacking" in 1900, and the result was a revision of the regulations that covered practically every form of plagiarism. That Hardy had some success, particularly in enlisting student sentiment on his side, is indicated by the fact that in 1906 the senior class tried and dismissed a student for "attempting to jack," and but for the intervention of the faculty, which

<sup>103</sup> Minutes of the Board, March 30, October 29, 1904.

<sup>104</sup> Reflector, October 19, 1918; February 8, 1921; May 23, September 22, 1922.

<sup>105</sup> Regulations, 1887, 21.

<sup>107</sup> Ibid., April 28, May 5, 1884.

<sup>109</sup> Ibid., June 8, 1885.

<sup>111</sup> Ibid., February 11, 1889.

<sup>106</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, May 4, 8, 15, 1903.

<sup>108</sup> Ibid., October 26, 1900.

<sup>110</sup> Ibid., December 5, 1887.

decided that the evidence was inconclusive, the victim would have suffered the penalty meted out to him by his peers.<sup>112</sup>

In 1911 the students under the leadership of the Y.M.C.A. Secretary and spurred on by a visit to the campus of the "Y" General Secretary, Dr. Weatherford, inaugurated an honor system applying to examinations.<sup>113</sup> The system was operated by an Honor Council of six members, one from each class under the senior and two from the senior class, one of the latter serving as chairman.<sup>114</sup> After being in operation for nearly a year, the system was enthusiastically described by the Reflector as a success.<sup>115</sup> Nevertheless, a faculty committee reported in October, 1912 that the honor system had not proved satisfactory.<sup>116</sup> When the same verdict was rendered the following year, the system was abandoned. Although in 1924 another attempt was made to have the system revived and in 1930 a student poll indicated favorable sentiment, nothing happened.<sup>117</sup> Actually, only the force of student opinion has ever served to curtail cheating, and an honor system will come only when the student body wills it.

Student government as such dates from 1916, when a Student Council was set up by President Smith.<sup>118</sup> The organization thrived at first, both as an agency to defend student interests and as a liaison group between faculty and student body. However, subsequently student-faculty bad relations temporarily brought to an end the disciplinary feature of student government. Nevertheless, the organization continued, and in 1923 the Student Association, as it was then called, became a member of the Southern Federation of Student Bodies.<sup>119</sup> In the next year the disciplinary feature of the Student Association's work was restored conditionally.<sup>120</sup> Apparently the restoration was not thorough enough to suit the students, and in January, 1925 a threatened uprising over the dismissal of eleven students brought about the establishment of a more extensive control by student government over disciplinary matters.<sup>121</sup> Never has there actually been much real participation by the student association in matters of discipline. Such would come, perhaps, only with an honor system. At any rate, as time has passed informal student participation in college administrative matters has become more and more extensive.

The services rendered by the Young Men's Christian Association have always been outstanding. The "Y" was first organized in the fall of 1882, with B.M. Walker as its first president. Originally meetings were held in the Dialectic Society room over the mess hall, but in the nineties, after a fire, the "Y" joined the two literary societies in a separate building.<sup>122</sup> The quarters for the Y.M.C.A. were cramped from the beginning, however, the seating capacity in the nineties being but 150. Members from the local group regularly attended state Y.M.C.A. meetings, and with the session of 1895-6 three delegates were sent to the Summer Training School. Besides attending the spiritual needs of the students by conducting Bible Classes, prayer meetings, and the Sunday afternoon services, the "Y" began in 1898 to devote its attention to physical recreation and amusement. In that year parlor games and "a few daily papers" were provided in a vacant space fitted up in the rear of the hall as a "recreation room."<sup>123</sup>

After the turn of the century, the Y.M.C.A. grew rapidly. In 1906 its membership reached 275. In 1909, it counted nearly 50% of the student body of over 800.<sup>124</sup> Meanwhile, activities had expanded so rapidly that a cry arose for new quarters, in fact for a separate "Y" building with a general secretary in charge. In April, 1904 a movement was initiated to secure funds for a building, and in December of that year a Building Committee issued a circular asking for donations. Already student pledges totalling \$3400 had been made, while Hardy and seven of the faculty had subscribed \$1600 to the cause and three "friends of the institution" had pledged donations amounting to \$1050.<sup>125</sup> It was hoped that the legislature would match the private funds for the proposed building, which would also house the literary societies and be available as a drill hall and gymnasium; but such hopes were vain.<sup>126</sup> Encouraged by the Board of Trustees, the sponsors of the project went on, finally enlisting the Rockefeller millions in their cause.<sup>127</sup> A vigorous campaign for donations was led by Professor

<sup>112</sup> Ibid., January 22, 1906.

<sup>114</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, May 15, 1911; Reveille, 1912, 206.

<sup>115</sup> Reflector, January, 1912.

<sup>117</sup> Commercial Appeal, April 10, 1930.

<sup>119</sup> Reflector, February 28, 1923.

<sup>121</sup> Commercial Appeal, January 3, 1925.

<sup>123</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, January 24, 1898; Reveille, 1898.

<sup>124</sup> Reveille, 1906, 122; 1909, 254.

<sup>126</sup> Biennial Report, 1904-5, 61.

<sup>113</sup> Ibid., March 22, 27, May 15, 1911; Reflector, April 1911, 31.

<sup>116</sup> Minutes of the Faculty, October 7, 1912.

<sup>118</sup> Biennial Report, 1917, 5; Reflector, September 30, 1916.

<sup>120</sup> Ibid., January 16, December 17, 1924.

<sup>122</sup> Minutes of the Board, January 19, 1891.

<sup>125</sup> Ibid., 1906, 122-123.

<sup>127</sup> Minutes of the Board, June 16, 1913.

W. H. Logan, one of the outstanding faculty leaders of the "Y", and Dr. W. D. Weatherford, General "Y" Secretary. As a result, early in 1915 a spacious "Y" building was opened on the campus.<sup>128</sup>

As the Y.M.C.A. program increased in scope, it became necessary to employ a General Secretary. Lacking funds from any other source, the trustees, at Hardy's request, authorized the payment of a secretary's salary out of the income from the rent of the iron bedsteads in the dormitory.<sup>129</sup> In 1908 Lindley arrived as the first full-time Secretary. Lindley held the office for three years, during which time he led in the movement to set up an honor system at the college.<sup>130</sup> The legislature also relented in 1909 to appropriate \$500 a year for the operation of the association.<sup>131</sup> In April, 1920 the board authorized an annual two dollar Y.M.C.A. fee,<sup>132</sup> and in July of that year the board agreed to pay \$1500 of the salary of the secretary.<sup>133</sup> In subsequent years the college has contributed to the operation of the Y.M.C.A. in varying degrees, the present policy being by student fees, by assistance in building upkeep and maintenance, and by occasional outright grants of funds.

Although the students were known to have added a number of gray hairs to administrative heads, sooner or later the faculty, from the president down, were moved to speak in highly commendatory terms of the "A. & M. cow pullers," as the boys described themselves in one of their most picturesque yells. In 1885 Lee said that he had "never seen better behavior among an equal body of men or students."<sup>134</sup> Student character, he pointed out, had "improved almost yearly, and we now have a most earnest, studious and exemplary set of boys."<sup>135</sup> In 1887 Lee praised the "most commendable spirit of the student body."<sup>136</sup>

Hardy, too, was loud in his praises of student morale, even after the great strike of 1908. In 1905 he remarked that "nearly every visitor to the campus refers to the gentlemanly bearing of our young men:"<sup>137</sup>

The policy of the College authorities has been to make it easy to do right and to make it popular to do right. Pride in the good standing of the College has been encouraged, and each boy seems to make it his duty to see that every student does his duty in maintaining order whenever the student body is away from the College for any reason whatever. Almost the entire student body made the trip to Brockhaven to attend the State Oratorical Contest, and Prof. Walker who represented the Faculty on the trip, informed me that the conductor came to him on the return trip and told him that he had been running excursion trains for fourteen years and that our student body was the most gentlemanly with whom he had ever come in contact during this time. Only a few days before the close of last session I received a letter from Superintendent Joe Cook, of Columbus, in which he says: "The Agricultural and Mechanical men stand very high in Columbus, and especially so with one citizen, Joe Cook. For four years I have been noticing them, and my good opinion of them has been growing all the while; and that good opinion assumed quite large proportions when I was thrown into personal contact with the Juniors of this session last fall, in their game of baseball with our boys."

In 1909, a year after the strike, Hardy reported a steady betterment in student morale, and he felt that in conduct the students were improving and "will continue to improve."<sup>138</sup> Some months later when students went to Gulfport to take part in oratorical and athletic contests, they were described by the "best people" as the "most gentlemanly crowd they had ever seen;" and the chief of police said that if the A. & M. boys ever came there again he would "give all his force a holiday, as their services will not be needed."<sup>139</sup> Much of the improvement of which Hardy boasted was the result, no doubt, of Hardy's conscious effort in his last years to interest the students in their own self-government by arousing a college spirit that would disavow any other than gentlemanly conduct.<sup>140</sup> The policemen of Gulfport probably never received their promised holiday; for even if the student body were gentlemen, they were not angels. The pranks went right on, and human nature, the abolition of which has so far not been achieved at the college, saw to it that even the best of students needed the restraining influence of faculty regulation and student opinion to keep them from falling by the

<sup>128</sup> Reflector, January 10, February 7, 1914, January 30, 1915; Commercial Appeal, September 7, October 26, 30, 1913; February 7, 1914; Biennial Report, 1911, 14; 1913, 24-25; 1915, II.

<sup>129</sup> Minutes of the Board, June 3, 1907.

<sup>130</sup> Ibid.

<sup>131</sup> Ibid., July 7, 1920.

<sup>132</sup> Ibid., 13.

<sup>133</sup> Ibid., 1904-5, 15.

<sup>134</sup> Ibid., 1910-11, 12.

<sup>130</sup> Biennial Report, 1910-11, 15.

<sup>132</sup> Minutes of the Board, April 16, 1920.

<sup>134</sup> Biennial Report, 1884-5, 9.

<sup>136</sup> Ibid., 1886-7, 19.

<sup>138</sup> Ibid., 1908-9, 12.

<sup>140</sup> Commercial Appeal, June 14, 1911.



wayside.

The student of the old A. and M. and the new Mississippi State has always inclined to be a strange contradiction of terms. He is a dirt farmer's son, but he is also a planter's son. He is rich; yet he is poor. He might take all manner of agricultural courses and go right out to become a doctor or a lawyer just as his father was or had hoped to be. He might drink and gamble, but he could take the "pledge" and keep it. In the early days he might have regarded the compulsory labor scheme as a pack of nonsense, but he went right on grubbing stumps on the drill field.

Somehow or other, out of it all, there came a new sort of being: a man who was both liberally and industrially trained, a man who in some subtle way had learned to appreciate the dignity of agricultural labor, a man who did not look down his nose at his fellow student who had worked his way into or through college. As the Commercial Appeal pointed out in an editorial praising the graduating class of 1910-11, "one of the ranking men sold old clothes; another worked his way through by selling peanuts; another by half-selling shoes." Truly, said the Commercial Appeal, the college had "established a new order of society, based on the aristocracy of efficiency, as distinguished from the old aristocracy of blood or the parvenu one of wealth." Here was an atmosphere which, as Hardy boasted, did not allow "snobbery and extravagance" to live, for it was possible for "the man of small means to mix with the best; to dignify labor in all forms, and thus fix in the minds of the student body correct standards of life and conduct."<sup>141</sup> No wonder a college yell of the old days could unabashedly resort to such homely and unpretentious language as, "Hay, peas, beans, and squash! A. & M. cow pullers. Yes, by gosh!"<sup>142</sup>

Even after the college grew up, its students rarely affected the effete or the sophisticated air. When Governor Russell set out on a democratization campaign in the state colleges in 1920, he had little difficulty in convincing himself that A. & M. was one of the "schools of the people."<sup>143</sup> Even the bugaboo of so-called fraternity snobbishness has rarely been seen on the campus. In fact, in campus politics the fraternities have often fought each other and played for the support of the unfraternal.

Back in the days when the student body was less numerous than now everyone spoke to everyone else, and the democratic spirit of campus life was apparent in such minor ways as in the calling of the faculty members "prof" and in a tendency toward the coining of nicknames, both for students and faculty. Some of this camaraderie has been lost in the growing-up process, but even after the school has come of age, dignity has not become pomposity, and no one has yet professed to find at Mississippi State either arrogance or snobbishness. Now the college has become a university, both in the multiplicity of its curricula and in the heterogeneity of its student body. Yet, it is still not ashamed of the fact that, having progressed to the point where it goes the "whole cow," so to speak, it was once a little "cow college," where, as old-Colonel Montgomery boasted, the cow pasture was in the front yard.

<sup>141</sup> A.A.A.C.&E.S., Proceedings, 1911, 134-5.

<sup>142</sup> Reflector, January, 1908, 179.

<sup>143</sup> Minutes of the Board, July 23, 1920.

#### A SURVEY OF MARRIAGE AND FAMILY COURSES IN MISSISSIPPI SENIOR COLLEGES

Out of a total of 11 senior colleges, 9 of which were white colleges and 2 negro colleges, it was found that 14 courses in the family and courses related to the family were being offered. Of these 14 courses it was found that a great variety of textbooks were used, almost every college using a different textbook. The only texts used more than once were Burgess and Locke, 3 times; Becker and Hill, twice; and Lendis and Lendis, twice. Two of the courses were not strictly family courses, but one was a course in consumer economics and the other mostly a home management course. The main method of teaching was partly lecture and partly discussion in 10 cases. In only one was discussion alone used, and in none was the class conducted entirely by lectures. Some visual aids were used, particularly films. About half used films and 5 used no visual aids at all. Only three schools made any field trips. The total number of hours of individual counseling on marriage and family problems varied greatly, all the way from none at all, up to 60 hours in one case, a negro school. Two schools estimated 9 hours or less, three schools 10 to 20 hours, two schools 21 to 30 hours, and three none at all. The main types of tests given were discussion in 8 schools, objective in 6, and objective and short answer in 4. The number of written papers required varied from none at all in 2 cases, one in 3 cases, two in 3 cases, three to five in 2 cases, and up to 15 short papers in one school. The papers were chiefly reading reports in 6 cases, and term papers in 3 cases. A few schools gave what they called research papers, themes, and biographies. The total number of pages of required outside reading ranged from 400 to 1200. In seven cases 400 to 500 pages, in two cases 500 to 1000 pages, and in two cases 1200 pages were required.—W. P. Carter

## NOTES

### EXTRACTS AND ABSTRACTS

#### *John A. Quitman: A Pioneer Champion of State Rights*

by

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NOTE: The abstract that follows is based on the Ph.D. dissertation of Dr. McLendon, who received his degree at the University of Texas in 1949. Dr. McLendon is currently at work on a biography of Quitman.

John Anthony Quitman was a lawyer, planter, soldier, and champion of state rights in antebellum Mississippi. He was born in 1798, at Rhinebeck, New York, the fourth son of Frederick Henry Quitman, a Lutheran minister, and Anna Elizabeth (Hueck) Quitman. The son received much of his early training from his father, who intended him for the ministry. Young Quitman continued his studies while serving as tutor at Hartwick Academy, New York. In 1818 he became instructor in English at Mount Airy College, Pennsylvania. He resolved to study law and moved to Chillicothe, Ohio, where he began his legal studies. After his admission to the bar in 1821, he moved to Natchez, Mississippi, and engaged in the practice of law. He was soon a full-fledged Southerner and on December 20, 1824, he married Eliza Turner, daughter of a prominent Natchez family. The Quitmans had eleven children, five of whom died in childhood.

Quitman's prominent connection with Masonry probably contributed much to his professional and political success. The Grand Lodge of Mississippi elected him Grand Master from 1826 to 1838 and again in 1845 and 1846. Meanwhile, in 1827 he won election to the lower house of the state legislature, where he served on the judiciary committee. From 1828 to 1834 he held the office of chancellor of the state. During that period he served as chairman of the judiciary committee in the Mississippi Constitutional Convention of 1832. He objected to popular election of judges, and he earnestly advocated submission of the convention's work to the people for ratification or rejection, but lost on both issues.

After 1832 Quitman identified himself with the nullification movement in Mississippi. Although a recognized leader in the minority state rights group, he nevertheless won election to the state senate in 1835, became its president on December 3, and served as Acting Governor for five weeks. The next year he lost a race for Congress, being defeated by a Jackson Democrat, Samuel J. Gholson.

In the meantime Quitman had invested in extensive property holdings. He had purchased a large home, "Monmouth," in the environs of Natchez, had developed a sugar plantation in Louisiana, and had acquired a cotton plantation and several tracts of land in Mississippi.

Since early manhood Quitman had actively participated in militia activities. In 1836 he led a group of mounted volunteers to Texas, but the company arrived at San Jacinto a few days after the decisive battle. The next year his militia division in Mississippi elected him major-general.

In 1839 Quitman went to Europe in an unsuccessful effort to sell securities of the Mississippi Rail Road Company. By 1840, like most Mississippians who had experienced the Panic of 1837, he had become financially embarrassed. Thereupon, he turned again to his long-neglected legal practice and to the management of his property. In the controversy over the repudiation of the Mississippi Union Bank bonds, Quitman thought the securities illegally issued, but he opposed repudiation. After disavowal of the bonds in two successive state elections, he accepted the decision as final.

When the Mexican War began, Quitman received a commission as brigadier-general of volunteers. His command was the first to assault and take an enemy fortification in the Battle of Monterey. On April 14, 1847, the President recommended him for promotion to major-general. Quitman's division aided the successful assault on Chapultepec. His forces were the first to breach the immediate defenses of Mexico City and the first to march into the capital upon its surrender. Scott thereupon appointed him civil and military governor of Mexico City. Quitman favored acquisition of all of Mexico or, at least, adoption of his carefully wrought plan for occupation of the country for an indefinite period.<sup>1</sup>

Quitman ran second to W. O. Butler as a candidate for the vice-presidential nomination in the Democratic National Convention of 1848. The next year he won election to the governorship in Mississippi. After Congress adopted the compromise measures of 1850, Quitman called a special session of the legislature and recommended that the acts be protested. If Congress would not satisfactorily modify the compromise, Quitman recommended that Mississippi secede from the Union. In the meantime a federal grand jury indicted him and others for support of the Lopez filibustering expedition to Cuba in 1850. He resigned the governorship to face the charges, but the case was dropped after a third failure to convict a codefendant. In 1851 he became the anti-compromise candidate for governor of Mississippi, but he withdrew as a matter of principle after the election of delegates to a state convention had resulted in a large "Union" majority favoring acceptance of the compromise.

Quitman assumed leadership of the Cuban liberation movement in 1853. Definitive plans were made for an invasion of the island, but Quitman resigned the command before the expedition materialized.

After his election to Congress in 1855, Quitman became chairman of the Military Affairs Committee. As congressman Quitman espoused extreme state rights proposals and worked for repeal of the neutrality laws. In 1856 he was again a candidate for the Democratic vice-presidential nomination. Quitman led the first ballot, but John C. Breckinridge was nominated on the second ballot. He continued to serve in Congress until his death on July 17, 1858, two and one-half years before his own state took the final step of severance from the Union—a move for which he had argued for a quarter of a century.

<sup>1</sup> For details of the diplomacy of the peace, in which Nicholas P. Trist played the leading part, see "Nicholas P. Trist: Biography of a Disobedient Diplomat," Ph.D. Thesis (Virginia, 1950), by R. A. Brent, of the history staff at Mississippi State College. An abstract of this study appeared in the *Bulletin* for Summer, 1950, pp. 23-24.

# Teacher Salary Policies in Mississippi

by

ERON R. TOOTLE

NOTE: Mr. Tootle received his M.S. degree in education at Mississippi State in August, 1950. The following summary of his findings is taken from Chapters I and V of Mr. Tootle's thesis.

The writer's interest in salary schedules was developed through readings as a graduate student. The writer became convinced that schedules acted as "governors" to retard or accelerate the flow of capable teachers into the profession. Through conversations with superintendents, who were further pursuing their graduate study, it was found that there was no state salary schedule, and it was believed that such a practice was none too well established in local school systems throughout the state. Consequently, the writer decided to study the problem to ascertain the true picture of the status of teachers' salary policies in Mississippi.

The data for this study were secured from three sources, namely: Questionnaires were mailed to various school officials throughout Mississippi; letters of inquiry were mailed to a selected number of State Superintendents of Education; and through wide readings of related literature.

It is the practice of the National Education Association to make teacher salary surveys according to population ranges of cities, towns, and villages; therefore, this study has followed the same practice so that comparisons might be made. A questionnaire was sent to all of the 12 cities in Mississippi having a population of 10,000 or more according to the 1940 census and to all of the 34 cities having a population from 2,500 to 10,000 according to the same census. These cities have four-year accredited high schools according to the Mississippi Educational Directory for 1949-50. In order to secure the other fifty-eight schools to which questionnaires were to be sent, an impartial plan of selection was resorted to so that a representative sampling could be secured rather than sampling any one particular group. The plan was that of taking every seventh school of the remaining four-year accredited high schools according to the Mississippi Educational Directory for 1949-50.

From the 104 questionnaires sent to the school superintendents, 77 replies were received. The same type questionnaire that was sent to the 104 school superintendents was mailed to each of the 82 County Superintendents of Education, from which 57 replies were received. A letter requesting information relative to state salary schedule policies was mailed to thirty-two State Superintendents of Education and thirty-two responses were received. All of the thirteen Southern states were included and the remaining nineteen states were selected at random, with particular emphasis being placed upon securing a representative sampling from each section of the United States.

In analyzing and interpreting the data secured from responses to question 1 of the questionnaire, "Does your school system have a salary schedule?", it is found that 65 per cent of the persons checking this item reported they had salary schedules while 35 per cent reported they did not have a salary schedule in operation. The percentage of "yes" answers is somewhat below that reported by the National Education Association<sup>1</sup> in their study of the number of school systems reporting salary schedules in 1948-49 in which 65 per cent of the responses were negative.

It is quite evident that a number of teachers in Mississippi are being penalized due to school systems not having salary schedules in operation. In the absence of schedules, individual bargaining is the rule instead of the exception which means that such extraneous factors as "politics" and "pull" determine, to a large extent, not only the amount of salary but also who shall be placed in various positions. Not only is the teacher in Mississippi being penalized but the school system itself is being penalized by not having a schedule as evidenced by the study made by Bolton, Cole, and Jessup<sup>2</sup> in which they stated that 75.9 per cent of the school systems replying reported that salary schedules were either effective or unusually effective in retaining teachers of high quality.

In the study made by the National Education Association in 1948-49 on the prevalence of salary schedules, it is stated that "a minority of even 15 per cent of the city school systems has not taken this first step toward an adequate salary policy is a reason for concern both in the profession and among laymen."<sup>3</sup> It should be of even greater concern to the educational leaders of Mississippi that 35 per cent of the schools in Mississippi reported they had not instituted salary schedules.

From question 2 in the questionnaire, "If you do have a salary schedule, when was it put into operation?", it is seen that as a whole the salary schedule policies are quite recent. Twenty-six of the 43 responding to this question or 60.5 per cent of the systems reported that the salary schedule had been instituted within the past 3 years. Of the remaining responses, 32.6 per cent reported putting their schedule into operation since 1941-42 which means that 93.1 per cent instituted a salary policy within the past 8 years.

Turning to question 3, "If you do not have a salary schedule, do you anticipate putting one into operation?", it can be seen that 12 of the 23 responding or 52.2 per cent reported "yes" while 47.8 per cent reported "no". It is inconceivable to the writer that any party responsible for the formulation of salary policies would say that there was no anticipation of putting a schedule into operation. It is deemed of paramount importance that every school administrator instigate a salary schedule, for as Reeder<sup>4</sup> states, "A poor schedule is probably better than none".

Question 4 in the questionnaire, "If you anticipate putting into operation a salary schedule, it will be at what approximate time?", received responses from eleven of the twelve who reported "yes" to question 3. It can be seen that 100 per cent reported that it was anticipated that salary schedules would be put into operation

<sup>1</sup>"Salaries and Salary Schedules of City-School Employees, 1948-49," National Education Association Research Bulletin, p. 65.

<sup>2</sup>Frederick E. Bolton, Thomas R. Cole, and John H. Jessup, The Beginning Superintendent, p. 305.

<sup>3</sup>"Salaries and Salary Schedules of City-School Employees, 1948-49," op. cit., p. 65.

<sup>4</sup>Ward G. Reeder, The Business Administration of a School System, p. 375.



within the next 3 years.

Referring to question 5 in the questionnaire, "If you have a salary schedule, do you pay elementary and secondary teachers with equal qualifications and experience the same salary?", it is observed that responses were secured from sixty-four of the seventy-seven school systems reporting. Of the 64 responses, 59 or 92.2 per cent stated that equal salaries were paid to elementary and secondary teachers with equal qualifications and experience while 5 responses or 7.8 per cent reported "no". It is encouraging to note this trend which is included in the single salary schedule. The National Education Association<sup>5</sup> made a study in which it is reported that 88.5 per cent of all teachers preferred the policy of paying elementary and secondary teachers with equal qualifications and experience the same salary.

From question 6 in the questionnaire, "Do you differentiate between the sexes with equal qualifications and experience?", sixty-one responses were received. Twenty-four of the 61 or 39.3 per cent stated "yes" while 37 or 60.7 per cent reported "no". These figures show a great variation from those reported by the National Education Association<sup>6</sup> in which it is stated that only 9.8 per cent of the responses reported sex differentials in cities under 30,000 population.

Turning to question 7, "Do you have increments of certain salary increases for additional qualifications and experience?", it is found that 54 of the 67 responses or 80.6 per cent reported "yes" while 13 or 19.4 per cent stated "no". The figures reported in this study do not show a great variation from those reported in a study made by the National Education Association<sup>7</sup> in which it was stated that 75 per cent of the teachers were in favor of the typical trend of practice, which is in the direction of rewarding higher preparation with extra salary.

Question 8 in the questionnaire, "If salary increments are given, which of the following tends to characterize it? Increments remain the same from year to year; increments tend to get larger with additional experience; increments tend to get smaller with additional experience.", received fifty-three responses. The percentage in one item of this study shows a great similarity with that reported by the National Education Association<sup>8</sup>; however, the other two items show a great variation. This study shows 58.5 per cent reported increments remain the same from year to year while the National Education Association reported 58.9 per cent; on the item, "increments tend to get larger with additional experience," 30.2 versus 16.3 per cent; and on the item, "increments tend to get smaller with additional experience," 11.3 versus 3.3 per cent. The remaining percentages of the National Education Association are included in "other variations".

Referring to question 9 in the questionnaire, "In case you have salary increments, are they automatic?", it is seen that 40 of the 54 responses or 74.1 per cent reported that increments were automatic while 14 of the responses or 25.9 per cent reported increments were not automatic. The National Education Association reports no study including this question; therefore, no comparison can be made.

From question 10, "If you have increments, how large are they?", it is observed that forty-three responses were secured. Fourteen or 32.6 per cent reported increments of \$40-49 per year. The increments ranged from less than \$20 to \$120-129, the median being \$48. Other than the \$40-49 increment, none received high enough percentages to be significant.

Turning to question 11 in the questionnaire, "How long do your increments continue?", it is found that 21 of the 44 replying or 47.7 per cent reported 5 increments while 20.5 per cent reported less than 5 increments. There were no other percentages large enough to be significant. The number of increments ranged from less than five to fifteen. It is to be noted that almost 70 per cent (68.2 per cent) reported five or less increments while the National Education Association<sup>9</sup> proposes a schedule containing at least fifteen increments.

Question 12 in the questionnaire, "In case you have salary increments, are such increments withheld if the rating of the teacher is unsatisfactory?", received responses from forty-seven school systems. Thirteen or 27.7 per cent reported that increments were withheld while 34 of the 47 responses or 72.3 per cent stated that teachers received increments whether their rating was satisfactory or not.

Referring to question 17 in the questionnaire, "What provisions are made for administrators on your schedule?", it is seen that responses were secured from forty-one school systems. Twelve of the 41 responses or 29.3 per cent reported "individual contract" while 24.4 per cent reported "no provisions". The other items did not have percentages large enough to be worthy of consideration. Even though numerous items were presented as being provisions for administrators, it is generally conceded that administrators are not included in the salary schedule. Probably the typical situation is given by one school system when it stated, "We get the best we can for the money we have."

Question 18 in the questionnaire, "Is out-of-state teaching service accepted in full?", received responses from 62 school systems of which 44 responses or 71.0 per cent reported out-of-state teaching service was accepted in full while 18 replies of the 44 or 29.0 per cent reported it was not.

From question 19 in the questionnaire, "If out-of-state teaching service is not accepted in full, what part is accepted?", it is observed that seventeen replies were received. There were various items, with 29.4 per cent of the responses reporting "one year accepted for two elsewhere" while 23.5 per cent reported "none". The percentages for the other items were not large enough to be significant.

Turning to question 20 in the questionnaire, "Is full service credit given to new teachers who come into your system from other schools within the state?", it is found that 66 responses were secured of which 50 or 75.8 per cent gives full service credit to teachers who taught within the state while 16 responses or 24.2 per cent stated they did not give full credit.

Referring to question 21 in the questionnaire, "If full service credit is not given to teachers from schools within the state, what part is accepted, if any?", it is found that only fifteen replies were received. Of these 53.3 per cent stated "one year for every two elsewhere" was accepted while 20.0 per cent reported

<sup>5</sup> "The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration," National Education Association Research Bulletin, December, 1945, p. 107.

<sup>6</sup> "Analysis of Single Salary Schedules," National Education Association Research Bulletin, October, 1947, p. 90.

<sup>7</sup> "The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration," op. cit., p. 109.

<sup>8</sup> "Analysis of Single Salary Schedules," op. cit., p. 90.

<sup>9</sup> "Professional Salaries for Teachers," National Education Association Journal, December, 1949, p. 662.

"no credit" accepted. The National Education Association holds that the "initial position of each teacher on the salary schedule should be determined by his amount of preparation and years of experience, with reasonable credit being given for teaching experience in other school systems, whether in the same state or in other states."<sup>10</sup>

Question 22 in the questionnaire, "Is there a probationary period before a new teacher in your system is placed on the schedule permanently?", received responses from 62 school systems of which 13 or 20.0 per cent reported there was a probationary period while 49 of the responses or 80.0 per cent stated there was no probationary period.

From question 23 in the questionnaire, "If there is a probationary period before a new teacher in your system is placed on the schedule permanently, how long is it?", it is found that thirteen replies were received. Two school systems reported a three-year probationary period, five reported two years, and six reported one year. The National Education Association<sup>11</sup> states that annual salary increases should start with the second year of service.

Turning to question 24 in the questionnaire, "Does your schedule have any provisions for dependents?", it is seen that sixty-six replies were secured. Two of the 66 or 3.0 per cent reported provisions for dependents while 64 of the replies or 97.0 per cent stated there were no provisions for dependents. In a study made by the National Education Association<sup>12</sup> it is reported that 5.4 per cent of the school systems stated allowances were provided for dependents. Cooke reports that dependency allowances should enter into salary scheduling.<sup>13</sup>

Referring to question 25 in the questionnaire, "If your schedule contains provisions for dependents, what provisions are made?", it is found that only one of the two reporting "yes" to question 24 replied. This school system stated that the cost of living was taken into consideration.

Question 26 in the questionnaire, "Is merit considered for advancement on the schedule? If answer is 'yes', how is merit determined?", received replies to the first question from fifty-four school systems. Fourteen of the responses or 25.9 per cent stated merit was considered for advancement while 40 school systems or 74.1 per cent reported that merit was not considered for advancement. The second part of the question received only eleven responses of which none received a large enough percentage to be worthy of consideration; however, some of the items are interesting. Two school systems reported "administrators opinion"; one, "ability - professional attitude"; one, "objective evaluation"; one, "point system by teachers committee"; two, "by quality of work"; one, "results based upon achievement tests"; one, "board and superintendent"; one, "service rendered"; and one, "by all the means we have for measuring ability."

From question 27 in the questionnaire, "Does your schedule make any provisions for special duties such as athletic personnel, play directors, etc.?", it is observed that 60 of the 68 responses or 88.2 per cent reported provisions for special duties while 8 of the 68 school systems or 11.8 per cent reported no provisions. Some of the states have specific statements included in the salary law regarding provisions for extra duties as evidenced by the following from the salary law of Louisiana to the effect that nothing "shall prevent parish or city school boards from providing additional compensation or increased increments, for special teachers such as principals, assistant principals, coaches, librarians, agricultural teachers, home economics teachers, music teachers, or any other teachers."<sup>14</sup>

Turning to question 28 in the questionnaire, "The salary of teachers is distributed over how many months?", it is seen that seventy-four responses were secured. Of these 17.6 per cent reported eight months; 9.5 per cent, nine months; 16.2 per cent, ten months; 1.4 per cent, eleven months; 29.7 per cent, twelve months; and 25.6 per cent reported optional plans. The National Education Association says that the "most common practice for cities under 30,000 population is to be paid on a twelve months basis while that for cities over 30,000 is on a ten months basis."<sup>15</sup>

Referring to question 29 in the questionnaire, "salaries of administrators are distributed over how many months?", it can be seen that seventy-three school systems responded with one reporting eleven months; sixty-six, twelve months; and six reported optional plans. It is generally conceded that as a whole administrators are paid on a twelve months basis.

From statement 30 in the questionnaire, "If you have a copy of your salary schedule, I would appreciate your sending a copy.", it is seen that thirty-six school systems sent schedules while forty-one did not.

From a report by the Mississippi Department of Education it is shown that the median salary for white classroom teachers for 1948-49 was \$1617.65 while the National Education Association reports the median salary for all types of classroom teachers for 1948-49 was \$2964 for cities with 10,000 to 30,000 population, \$2783 for cities with 5,000 to 10,000 population, and \$2655 for cities with 2,500 to 5,000 population or an average median of \$2801 for classroom teachers in cities under 30,000 population.<sup>16</sup>

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 663.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>12</sup> "Analysis of Single Salary Schedules," *op. cit.*, p. 90.

<sup>13</sup> Dennis H. Cooke, *Administering the Teaching Personnel*, pp. 289-290.

<sup>14</sup> "Louisiana Teacher-Welfare Laws - Revised Statutes of 1950," *Louisiana Schools*, p. 40.

<sup>15</sup> "Teacher Personnel Procedures: Employment Conditions in Service," *National Education Association Research Bulletin*, May, 1942, p. 88.

<sup>16</sup> "Statistical Data on School Session 1948-49;" Report by State Department of Education, Jackson, Mississippi, p. 17; "Salaries in 1948-49," *National Education Association Journal*, May, 1949, p. 352.

# Mississippi's Rural Migration

by

HARALD A. PEDERSEN<sup>1</sup>  
Division of Sociology and Rural Life

Boys and girls or young men and young women continue to be the most important single export item from Mississippi. With roughly 400,000 more babies born in the state than would be required to replace the persons dying during the past decade, the state has not quite managed to maintain a stable population. Probably half a million people, or a number equal to one-fourth of the present population in the state, migrated to other states during the ten-year period. Some returned and others were replaced by migrants from other states, but when the balance sheet is drawn up, roughly 400,000 more people have moved out of Mississippi since 1940 than moved into the state during that period.

This is the implication which may be drawn from preliminary releases based on the 1950 census. The state as a whole lost less than one-percent in population during the ten-year period. In 1940 the population was 2,183,000 while the preliminary releases place the 1950 population at 2,171,000, or a loss of around 12,000 people. In all probability, when final tabulations are completed, the loss will be even smaller.

A complete analysis of changes which have occurred and are occurring in the state must await final tabulations by the Bureau of the Census. However, if preliminary releases are evaluated in terms of past performance of Mississippi people, some indication of changes which have taken place may be obtained.

In 1940 the replacement rate--that is, the balance between births and deaths--fell short of the replacement level among urban people in Mississippi. This means that without migration there were only enough children born in towns and cities to replace three-fourths of the white and two-thirds of the Negro losses due to deaths. The replacement rate for farm population, in contrast, shows an excess of births over deaths of 60 percent for the white and 90 percent for Negro population.

At this replacement level, urban population should have decreased about 10 percent during the decade and farm population should have increased nearly 30 percent. However, preliminary releases indicate that urban population gained over 36 percent while rural population, which includes farm population, lost nearly ten percent.

Some indication of the relation between the replacement level, migration, and loss or gain in the population may be derived from an analysis of the male replacement rate for farm people. The male replacement rate is the ratio of farm boys reaching age 20 to the number of farm men who die or pass the age of retirement at 65, during a given period.

For every 100 farm men who die or reach the age of retirement there are 250 young men ready to enter the farm labor force, the replacement rate for Mississippi reveals. Farm population, however, has always been subject to migration. The American farmer does not follow the policy of sub-dividing the farm so that each boy can have a plot of ground, instead farm young people migrate.

Rural-urban migration is low in periods of depression and high in periods of prosperity. The decade 1930-1940 was a period of low economic activity during which a low rate of migration could be expected. In contrast, the 1940-1950 decade was a period of high economic activity and full employment. Consequently, a large migration from rural to urban areas could be expected and preliminary census releases indicate that such has been the case.

The number of urban centers in the state increased from 48 with a population of 432,882 in 1940, to 51 with a population of 581,483 in 1950. In all probability, the replacement index for urban areas has not increased appreciably during the 10-year period. This means that the migration to urban areas in Mississippi has been in excess of 160,000 persons.

While urban centers were increasing by 160,000 persons rural areas lost nearly 171,000 people. The evidence points strongly to the fact that the 400,000 migrants from the state, the excess of births over deaths, were drawn originally from the rural population. This means that in excess of half a million people, or approximately one-third of the present rural population of the state, have migrated from rural areas during the 10-year period. Some have gone to replace migrants leaving Mississippi cities for other states; others have added to the accumulation in Mississippi cities; and others have migrated from rural areas of Mississippi to urban centers or rural areas of other states.

Preliminary 1950 census releases indicate differences in rates of gain or loss between various sub-areas and between cities. In Mississippi, large centers gained at the fastest rate. Small urban centers also gained but at a lower rate and rural areas, as noted, lost population. Furthermore, the indication is that villages and towns with less than 2,500 persons gained or lost only slightly in population. The loss was greatest for open country areas in the state.

Two Mississippi cities, Jackson and Meridian, had a population of 25,000 or more in 1940. During the decade, Jackson gained 57 percent and Meridian 18 percent. In 1950 Biloxi, Greenville, Hattiesburg, and Vicksburg were included in large centers and Laurel, with a preliminary total of 24,388, probably will be included when the final tabulation is completed. This makes a total of 6 and possibly 7 centers in the state with a population of 25,000 or more persons. These seven centers in 1950 account for 13 percent of the people in the state as compared to 1940 when less than 5 percent of the people were living in the two centers with 25,000 or more persons.

The intermediate-size cities in the state, those with populations ranging from 10,000 to 24,999, gained slightly less than large cities. In 1940 there were 10 centers in this size group. The ten centers gained 40 percent during the decade. In 1950 four of the centers are in the next larger size group. Three centers increased from less than 10,000 persons in 1940 to 10,000 or more persons making 9 centers in 1950 in the intermediate-size group.

Combining the intermediate and large cities there are 15 centers in the state with a population of 427,392, or nearly 20 percent of the total population. This is almost equal to the total urban population in the state in 1940. The increasing importance of the large and intermediate urban centers indicates a changing way of living in the state.

<sup>1</sup> This article is reprinted from the October, 1950 issue of Mississippi Farm Research, published by the Mississippi Agricultural Experiment Station.



The number of small urban centers is the same in 1950 as in 1940, with 36 centers ranging in size from 2,500 to 9,999 persons. In 1940 there were 159,772 persons living in these 36 centers. During the decade three of these centers increased to 10,000 or more persons, one dropped to less than 2,500 persons, and four centers increased from less than 2,500 persons to 2,500 or more persons.

A complete enumeration of towns and villages with less than 2,500 persons is not available at present. However, the data was secured for several counties scattered throughout the state. In these counties, towns, and villages tend to hold their own showing only slight gains or losses. The open country population, in contrast, experienced considerable losses in nearly every beat.

On the basis of this incomplete evidence the conclusion seems warranted that the loss experienced by rural areas is the result of continued extensive outmigration of farm boys and girls in the early productive years. This characteristic was observed to a less marked degree in the period from 1930 to 1940.

In summary, it should be re-emphasized that the population totals cited here are preliminary and hence are subject to revision. Nonetheless it seems certain that Mississippi will hardly do better than to maintain a stable population. When replacement rate is considered, it becomes evident that a large number of people have migrated from the state annually during the decade. Finally, rural areas have lost population while urban areas have gained.

The heavy migration from rural areas is not necessarily an unhealthy condition. Rather it may be the sign of a healthy readjustment in the economy of the state. Rural leaders and farm people themselves have long been aware of the extreme pressure of people on the land in Mississippi and in the South. The observed migration may bring about a better balance between these two primary resources in the state. State and local leaders should continue efforts to "balance agriculture with industry" so that the state may reap benefits from money expended in educating its young people. This can only be done by making available alternative employment opportunities in the state that can successfully compete with employment opportunities elsewhere.

## January Business Activity

Mississippi business activity during January 1951 gained 15 per cent over January 1950, according to the February issue of the *Mississippi Business Review*, which is edited by Professor J. J. MacAllister and published monthly by the Business Research Station at Mississippi State College. On January 31, the index stood at 33 per cent of the 1939-40 average. This is 50 points above the level of January 31, 1950, and only 39 points below the all-time high of 372 reached last August on the Business Research Station's index. Eight major indicators showed gains over a year ago; the ninth, registration licenses for new businesses, dropped 22.9 per cent. Bank debits were up 28.8 per cent; contracts awarded, 81.9 per cent. All sixteen trade districts reported a gain in business activity over a year ago, as follows: Clarksdale, 26.6 per cent; Meridian, 22.9 per cent; Gulfport-Biloxi, 22.8 per cent; Memphis and Pascagoula, 21.2 per cent; McComb, 20.4 per cent; Jackson, 19.7 per cent; Greenwood, 19.3 per cent; Columbus, 18.8 per cent; Greenville, 17.8 per cent; Tupelo, 16.7 per cent; Laurel, 16.4 per cent; Corinth and Hattiesburg, 15 per cent; Natchez, 11.6 per cent; and Vicksburg, 5.8 per cent.

## Mississippi Farm Prices in January

Prices received by Mississippi farmers during January, 1951 were 4 per cent higher than during December, 1950, according to the February issue of *Mississippi Farm Research*, which contains the monthly price survey conducted by Professors D. W. Farvin, W. E. Christian, and Mr. T. E. Tramel. This was the third consecutive month that a new record high has been reached. Compared to a year ago, prices received by Mississippi farmers increased 51 per cent. This is 348 per cent of the 1909-14 average. Prices received by farmers of the nation as a whole are the highest since January 1948, 300 per cent of the 1909-14 average. This is an increase of 5 per cent over a month ago and 28 per cent over a year ago. Prices paid by farmers during January were 3 per cent higher than during December, 1940, the previous record high. This is 9 per cent higher than a year ago and 272 per cent of the 1909-14 average.

Even though prices paid by farmers increased over December, 1950 to set a new record high, purchasing power, as reflected by the parity ratio, was slightly higher for both the Mississippi farmer and for farmers of the United States as a whole. This was due to prices received having increased at a more rapid pace than prices paid. Mississippi farmers are in a more favorable position than farmers of the nation as a whole from the standpoint of prices paid and received. The parity ratio for Mississippi for January, 1951 was 128 per cent of the 1909-14 average, compared to 110 per cent for farmers of the nation as a whole.

### ECONOMICS STUDY SHOWS SOUTHERN ADVANCE

(Continued from page 10)

fers with a type of agriculture already in course of development which afford the Southern producer an opportunity to attain a higher real standard of living, with the minimum of conflict with the interests of consumers and taxpayers," the book said. The economists said that the early New Deal definition of parity in farm prices no longer held, at least in the case of tobacco. This definition of parity prices was given in the study as "the prices for products produced by the farmers which would give them the same purchasing power with reference to commodities purchased by farmers which had existed immediately prior to World War I." The economists' own definition of present parity was: "It now represents primarily the highest price which representatives of growers, by using all the parliamentary devices at their command, have been able to persuade Congress to accept as the basis for Government price support."

The thirteen states included in the study were Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas and Virginia.

## Activities

### GRADUATE REGISTRATION IN SOCIAL SCIENCES GROWS

Graduate registration in the social sciences at Mississippi State College continues to rise, the total spring semester registrants as majors and minors in the several departments being 105 as compared to 99 last semester. Education leads in the number of graduate majors with 26. History comes next with 12 majors, followed by Agricultural Economics with 7 majors. Sociology has two majors and Government one. As for graduate minors, Agricultural Economics leads with 24 students, followed by Education with 14, Economics with 9, History with 6, Government with 3, and Sociology with 2. The names of majors and minors in these fields follow: Alder, Wayland M., Agricultural Economics minor; Ashley, James A., Agricultural Economics minor; Batterton, Clarence B., Jr., Economics minor; Bickerstaff, Jack M., Education major; Bilgic, Kemal M., Agricultural Economics minor; Boswell, Rupert D., Jr., Education minor; Box, Annie M., History major, Education minor; Burrage, Clifton W., Agricultural Economics minor; Clark, Clyde R., Agricultural Economics minor; Cleveland, E. C., Education major; Covington, Beatrice C., Education major; Crowley, Everett W., Agricultural Economics minor; Cutler, Harry C., Education major, History minor; Davis, Jefferson D., Education major; Davis, Julius Harper, Education major; Dykes, Mrs. Mary Frances Wilson, History major, Education minor; Ellis, Thomas Edward, Agricultural Economics minor; Estes, Allen F., Jr., Agricultural Economics major, Economics minor; Farnsworth, Clyde H., Education major, Economics minor; Finley, Henry C., Agricultural Economics minor; Garner, Arvy L., Education major; Greer, Hazel M., Education major; Hall, William E., Agricultural Economics major, Economics minor; Hamblin, Orby D., Education minor; Hankins, Ray B., Agricultural Economics minor; Earrell, J.C., Agricultural Economics minor; Hinton, Charles Foch, Agricultural Economics minor; Hobby, Floyd M., Agricultural Economics minor; Honeycutt, Edward D., Agricultural Economics minor; Hunsicker, Allene, History major; Johnson, R.C., Education major; Johnston, Rupert B., Agricultural Economics major, Economics minor; Johnston, Thomas J., Agricultural Economics major; Kennedy, Kenneth D., Education major; King, Wilburn, Jr., History major, Education and Government minors; Kinard, Anita I., Education major, History minor; Lever, Mrs. Webbie J., History major, Education minor; Locke, Earl L., Agricultural Economics minor; Long, Julian R., Education major, History minor; McCain, Mary J., History major, Sociology minor; McMinn, Ola Mae, Education major; McWhorter, Chester G., Agricultural Economics minor; Mann, William H., Education major; Martin, Ernest B., Education major; Martin, John T., History major, Education minor; Mitchell, Mrs. Mary Lou, Education major; Moffett, Woodson W., Jr., Agricultural Economics major, Economics minor; Moor, Bluford L., Sr., Education major; Morgan, Frances L., Education major; Mott, Mary Rose H., History major; Murphree, John P., Education major, History minor; Nixon, Lake H., Agricultural Economics minor; Owen, Sidney S., History major, Education minor; Payne, David L., Sociology major, Government minor; Rieves, Billie L., Education major; Robertson, Wiley C., Agricultural Economics minor; Rone, William L., Education major, History and Sociology minors; Salter, Leo W., Agricultural Economics minor; Seal, Enoch, Jr., History major, Education and Government minors; Seale, Arthur D., Jr., Agricultural Economics major, Economics minor; Sheffield, Lee R., Agricultural Economics minor; Shepherd, Albert G., Jr., Agricultural Economics minor; Simpson, John K., Agricultural Economics minor; Smith, Charles I., Agricultural Economics minor; Smith, Newton J., Agricultural Economics minor; Southward, John O., Jr., Government major, History minor; St. Clair, Carl R., Education minor; Stephens, Rhoda H., Education major; Steele, Ralph A., Education minor; Stubblefield, Mrs. Ann K., Education major; Tennyson, Calvin E., Education minor; Travel, Thomas E., Agricultural Economics major, Economics minor; Truitt, John W., Education minor; Valentine, James H., Agricultural Economics minor; Valentine, Mrs. Martha S., Education major; Warnick, Curtis D., Education minor; Watkins, Ethel A., History major; Wilson, Joe H., Education minor; Wofford, Mrs. Nell A., History major, Economics minor; Shock, Howard E., Education major; Sutphen, John, Sociology major.

#### D. GALE JOHNSON TO VISIT CAMPUS AND ADDRESS ROUND TABLE

Dr. D. Gale Johnson, of the University of Chicago, will arrive here early in April for an extended visit with the Department of Agricultural Economics. Dr. Johnson is well-known in the field of agricultural economics, having published a number of books, the best known of which are Forward Pricing in Agriculture and Trade and Agriculture: A Study of Inconsistent Policies. Dr. Johnson has served as an advisor to the State Department and for a time after the war he was in Germany as consultant on agricultural policy in the forces of occupation.

It is expected that Dr. Johnson will address the next session of the Social Science Round Table, which is tentatively set for April 16. Cards will be mailed shortly giving details of this meeting.

#### RECOGNITION OF CHURCH COMMUNITY WORK

Mississippi churches are to be recognized for outstanding community service by the Mississippi Christian Community Fellowship as a feature of Farm and Home Week to be held at Mississippi State College, July 16-20. Miss Shiela Nuttall of Yazoo City, deaconess of Mississippi conference doing rural work, is chairman of the fellowship committee on church recognition. Recognition will be accorded churches irrespective of size and denomination, which render outstanding community services. This service may take the form of recreation sponsorship, beautification, cooperation with other community agencies such as Scouts, Red Cross, schools, etc., improvement of religious, financial, and music programs. All nominations must be made by June 15, according to Professor Dorris W. Rivers of the Division of Sociology and Rural Life at Mississippi State College.

## A. A. U. P. STATE - WIDE MEETING HERE

The State College Chapter of American Association of University Professors is planning a state-wide meeting of AAUP members and other interested persons on April 20 and 21. Dr. Ralph E. Himstead, general secretary of the American Association of University Professors, will be the guest of the Chapter for the two day session. He will deliver the principle address at the general session scheduled for 2 p.m., Saturday, April 21. A tentative program for the two day visit by Dr. Himstead follows:

Friday, April 20

7:30 p.m. Mississippi State College Chapter Meeting---Auditorium, Library

8:30 p.m. Informal Reception for Dr. Ralph E. Himstead, General Secretary, AAUP

Saturday, April 21

11:00 a.m. Informal Conference between Dr. Himstead and College Administrators---  
President's Conference Room

1:00 p.m. Open luncheon for delegates-----Cafeteria

2:00 p.m. State-wide Meeting (Open to all)-----State College Chapel

Address by Dr. Himstead

Question period

Adjournment

## CAMPUS SOCIOLOGISTS HOSTS TO OLE MISS GROUP

The division of Sociology and Rural Life was host to the members of the department of Sociology and Anthropology from the University of Mississippi at an informal seminar on Saturday, March 10. Dr. William G. Haag of the University staff discussed his two major research projects in archaeology. Dr. Haag is continuing a study of dog skeletons which he initiated while at the University of Kentucky. Since coming to the University of Mississippi he has made considerable progress in an archaeological survey of the state. He is also doing intensive work on one or two archaeological sites in the state. Dr. Alfred C. Schmurr also presented a report on his work in penology and criminology in Mississippi. His discussion was devoted primarily to methodological problems associated with the study he is now carrying on at the State Penitentiary in Parchman, Mississippi. In addition to Drs. Haag and Schmurr, Dr. Morton King, head of the department at the University attended the seminar. Professor Loftin and Mr. Galloway presented a statement covering the status of the rural health study now being carried on by the Division. Some time was devoted to a discussion of future plans and possibilities for research in the general area of rural health.

## SUMMER GEOGRAPHY TRIP PLANNED

The department of geology and geography, Mississippi State College, will offer its annual western field course in geography during the first term of Summer School this year, June 4 to July 10, according to Dr. Merle W. Myers, who conducted a similar tour last summer. The course is open to graduate or undergraduate students and to both men and women. After a brief orientation period on the campus, the class will leave in a modern bus on a twenty-six-day, 6,000-mile tour, of the scenic, agricultural, mining, and industrial centers of western United States, including Los Angeles, Carlsbad Caverns, El Paso, and Juarez, Mexico, Grand Canyon, Salt Lake City, Yellowstone and the Colorado Rockies. Costs for the course will include the regular summer school tuition and fees at State College, plus a trip charge of \$170 to cover transportation, lodging and most entrance fees to various scenic attractions. Six hours of credit may be earned in the course upon satisfactory completion of the requirements. Further information about the course and this summer's itinerary may be obtained by writing the Department of Geology and Geography, Box 115, State College, Mississippi

## MISSISSIPPI MANAGEMENT CONFERENCE

The third annual Mississippi Management Conference was held at the Edwards Hotel in Jackson March 20 under the sponsorship of the Management department of Mississippi State College, of which J. J. MacAllister is head. Dr. Fred T. Mitchell, president of Mississippi State College, and Rex Brown, president of the Miss. Power and Light Company, gave welcoming addresses at the beginning of the early afternoon conference, which featured a talk on "Employer-Employee Relations" by T. T. Stubbs of Atlanta, assistant vice president in charge of personnel relations, Southern Bell Telephone and Telegraph Company. Later in the afternoon Wallace Wright, of the Merchants Company, Jackson, presided at a panel discussion on "Management's Stake in Industrial Development." Professor MacAllister presided at the evening session, at which the speaker Victor L. Short, of the Institute of Human Science in Chicago. His topic was "Personal Relations." Mr. Short is nationally known in business educational circles as the first to bring the science of human engineering, and to apply its principles, to modern business and industrial management.

## FACULTY ATTEND M.E.A. CONVENTION

A number of members of the Mississippi State College staff participated in the annual MEA convention in Jackson, March 15-17. Professor Robert Weber, visual education specialist of the adult education department, and Mr. Marvin Osborn prepared a State College exhibit at the Heidelberg Hotel. Dr. Merle W. Myers, associate professor of geography, addressed a meeting of geography teachers at the Heidelberg Hotel on Friday morning. Dr. W. H. Barnard, professor of general education led a panel discussion on "Selection of Teachers" at a meeting of the teacher education section on Friday afternoon.

Others attending from State College were Dr. Fred T. Mitchell, Bob Williams, Arthur Morton, B. P. Brooks, T. T. Brackin, Dr. Adolph W. Aleck, D. C. D. Ellis, W. A. Hollingsworth, Dr. Harold S. Snellgrove, R. P. White, V. S. Mann, Lee E. Guther, Homer S. Coskrey, Donald E. Thompson, Miss Margaret Feebles, Miss Elizabeth Robinson, and Mrs. Celia Pope Campbell.



Dr. Dorothy Dickens, head of the home economics department of the Agricultural Experiment Station at Mississippi State College, was in Washington on March 26 to attend, as a member of the Consumers Advisory Committee, a joint meeting of this committee and President Truman's Council of Economic Advisers. The group discussed the point at which the inflationary price rise can be checked, and by what means. They also considered steps necessary to prevent inequalities and injustices in price regulation.

On March 30-31 Dr. Dickens participated in a committee meeting of the American Home Economics Association in Washington. The purpose of the meeting was to devise a program of work for home economics teachers as a means of carrying to the consumer advice on what to buy to meet the high cost of living.

Dr. Thomas A. Kelly represented the Mississippi State College School of Business at the regional clinic on chamber of commerce operation in Greenwood March 22. State Representative Hal Kirby of the Starkville Chamber of Commerce also attended.

Dr. William P. Carter, Professor of Sociology and Rural Life, attended the Southern Council on Family Relations at Alexandria, La. on March 16 and 17. Dr. Carter was chairman of college teaching committee. He gave a report to this committee of a survey on marriage and family courses in the senior colleges of Mississippi. (See page 30 for a report on this survey). Dr. Carter served as substitute chairman for the Committee on The Impact of Television on the Family, and conducted one of the general sessions on this subject. (See page 13 for a report made by Dr. Carter on this subject). Dr. Carter was also on two other committees, the executive committee and the marriage counseling committee. At its conclusion the council set up two regional groups, Mississippi being placed in a new Southwestern Council on Family Relations. Dr. Carter was elected vice-president of the new organization, chairman of new program committee, chairman of the college teaching committee, and is a member of the executive committee.

The history of the labor movement was described by Dr. Robert A. Brent, of the history and government department, in a speech to the mechanical engineering students on March 7. Dr. Brent pointed out the increasing power of organized labor as evidenced in the growth of the A.F. of L. and the C.I.O., and the enactment of anti-trust legislation, the Norris-LaGuardia Act of 1933, the Wagner Act of 1935, and the Taft-Hartley Act of 1947. On March 16 Dr. Brent spoke on the same topic to the Starkville Rotary Club.

Dr. Harald A. Pedersen was a member of the panel which appeared before the Third Annual Management Conference in Jackson on March 20, 1951. The subject of the panel discussion was "Managements Stake in Industrialization". Dr. Pedersen presented some of the current population facts pertinent to industrial development in the state.

Dr. D. W. Parvin, Associate Professor of Agricultural Economics, attended a meeting of the Subcommittee of the State Defense Production Advisory Committee in Jackson, Mississippi on February 23. The purpose of this meeting was to establish Agricultural Production goals by Counties in Mississippi under the National Defense Program.

Dr. W. E. Collins and Mr. E. E. Kern, Jr., of the Agricultural Economics Department, attended the annual meeting of the Mississippi Dairy Products Association at Biloxi, Mississippi March 8-10.

Professor Eugene F. Mitchell, head of the industrial education department and state teacher trainer in industrial education, attended the annual Southern Conference of State Supervisors of Trade and Industrial Education and State Teacher Trainers at Mobile, Alabama, March 19-22.

Dr. T. A. Kelly and Dr. Ben Wofford attended a meeting at Atlanta this month, at which representatives of the T.V.A. and the U. S. Employment Service research departments discussed proposed studies of the labor force in the South.

Warren B. Scott, counselor and research specialist in the student affairs department, was elected treasurer of the Mississippi Guidance Association at its annual meeting in Jackson this month. He was also selected, along with George Street, assistant dean of men at the University, to report on Mississippi's guidance activities in higher education. Their reports are to appear in the Southern College Personnel Association News, published by this association.

Professor Dorris Rivers, Dr. T. A. Kelly, and Dr. Ben Wofford were great speakers at a meeting of the Mississippi Employment Security Workers at Jackson on March 30-31. Dr. Kelly discussed the basic, economic and social factors conditioning employment security in Mississippi. Dr. Wofford discussed present economic patterns and the need for a better balanced industry, and Professor Rivers discussed the value of a community program in effecting the fullest use of human and natural resources.

Woodson W. Moffett, Jr. has been appointed graduate assistant in the department of Agricultural Economics.

Mrs. Laurel P. Upshaw has been appointed graduate assistant in the department of Geology and Geography.

Miss Olive Sheets of the Department of Home Economics of the Mississippi Experiment Station, attended the annual meeting of the Southern Cooperative Group in New Orleans this month. This group was organized in 1938 with Miss Sheets as its first chairman. The purpose of the organization has been to study cooperatively factors which affect the nutritive value of human foods of plant origin, with the final objective, the improvement in their nutritive qualities. From the beginning home economists, horticulturists, chemists, agronomists, and plant geneticists have cooperated in the work, and the group now includes plant physiologists, weather specialists, and a statistician. Members participating in one or more of the several research projects being conducted represent seven southern experiment stations, the Puerto Rico station, the U. S. Plant, Soil and Nutrition Laboratory, and the U. S. Weather Bureau.

Dr. W. H. Barnard, of the education department, has completed research on a study of the social, economic, and educational background of Mississippi county superintendents.

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Dr. William P. Carter, Professor of Sociology and Rural Life, attended the Southern Council on Family Relations at Alexandria, La. on March 16 and 17. Dr. Carter was chairman of college teaching committee. He gave a report to this committee of a survey on marriage and family courses in the senior colleges of Mississippi. (See page 30 for a report on this survey). Dr. Carter served as substitute chairman for the Committee on The Impact of Television on the Family, and conducted one of the general sessions on this subject. (See page 13 for a report made by Dr. Carter on this subject). Dr. Carter was also on two other committees, the executive committee and the marriage counseling committee. At its conclusion the council set up two regional groups, Mississippi being placed in a new Southwestern Council on Family Relations. Dr. Carter was elected vice-president of the new organization, chairman of new program committee, chairman of the college teaching committee, and is a member of the executive committee.

The history of the labor movement was described by Dr. Robert A. Brent, of the history and government department, in a speech to the mechanical engineering students on March 7. Dr. Brent pointed out the increasing power of organized labor as evidenced in the growth of the A.F. of L. and the C.I.O., and the enactment of anti-trust legislation, the Norris-LaGuardia Act of 1933, the Wagner Act of 1935, and the Taft-Hartley Act of 1947. On March 16 Dr. Brent spoke on the same topic to the Starkville Rotary Club.

Dr. Harold A. Pedersen was a member of the panel which appeared before the Third Annual Management Conference in Jackson on March 20, 1951. The subject of the panel discussion was "Managements Stake in Industrialization". Dr. Pedersen presented some of the current population facts pertinent to industrial development in the state.

Dr. D. W. Parvin, Associate Professor of Agricultural Economics, attended a meeting of the Subcommittee of the State Defense Production Advisory Committee in Jackson, Mississippi on February 23. The purpose of this meeting was to establish Agricultural Production goals by Counties in Mississippi under the National Defense Program.

Dr. W. E. Collins and Mr. E. E. Kern, Jr., of the Agricultural Economics Department, attended the annual meeting of the Mississippi Dairy Products Association at Biloxi, Mississippi March 8-10.

Professor Eugene F. Mitchell, head of the industrial education department and state teacher trainer in industrial education, attended the annual Southern Conference of State Supervisors of Trade and Industrial Education and State Teacher Trainers at Mobile, Alabama, March 19-22.

Dr. T. A. Kelly and Dr. Ben Wofford attended a meeting at Atlanta this month, at which representatives of the T.V.A. and the U. S. Employment Service research departments discussed proposed studies of the labor force in the South.

Warren B. Scott, counselor and research specialist in the student affairs department, was elected treasurer of the Mississippi Guidance Association at its annual meeting in Jackson this month. He was also selected, along with George Street, assistant dean of men at the University, to report on Mississippi's guidance activities in higher education. Their reports are to appear in the Southern College Personnel Association News, published by this association.

Professor Dorris Rivers, Dr. T. A. Kelly, and Dr. Ben Wofford were great speakers at a meeting of the Mississippi Employment Security Workers at Jackson on March 30-31. Dr. Kelly discussed the basic, economic and social factors conditioning employment security in Mississippi. Dr. Wofford discussed present economic patterns and the need for a better balanced industry, and Professor Rivers discussed the value of a community program in effecting the fullest use of human and natural resources.

Woodson W. Moffett, Jr. has been appointed graduate assistant in the department of Agricultural Economics.

Mrs. Laurel P. Upshaw has been appointed graduate assistant in the department of Geology and Geography.

Miss Olive Sheets of the Department of Home Economics of the Mississippi Experiment Station, attended the annual meeting of the Southern Cooperative Group in New Orleans this month. This group was organized in 1938 with Miss Sheets as its first chairman. The purpose of the organization has been to study cooperatively factors which affect the nutritive value of human foods of plant origin, with the final objective, the improvement in their nutritive qualities. From the beginning home economists, horticulturists, chemists, agronomists, and plant geneticists have cooperated in the work, and the group now includes plant physiologists, weather specialists, and a statistician. Members participating in one or more of the several research projects being conducted represent seven southern experiment stations, the Puerto Rico station, the U. S. Plant, Soil and Nutrition Laboratory, and the U. S. Weather Bureau.

Dr. W. H. Barnard, of the education department, has completed research on a study of the social, economic, and educational background of Mississippi county superintendents.

bulletin written by Martha Burgoyne and published by the Mississippi State Resource-Education department. Miss Burgoyne is a senior in the school of education. This publication is the first in a series to be known as the "Mississippi Resources Library," which is edited by Professor Lee B. Gaither, head of the Resource-Use Education department.

#### Experiment Station Bulletins

Family Food Consumption in Three Types of Farming Areas in the South, An Analysis of 1947 Food Data is the title of a cooperative bulletin recently published. Dr. Dorothy Dickins is senior author. A summary of this study appears in this issue of the Social Science Bulletin.

Health Practices of Rural People in Lee County, by Robert E. Galloway and Harold F. Kaufman, appeared in December, 1950 under the imprint of the Mississippi Agricultural Experiment Station, as number one in its Sociology and Rural Life Series.

Production Practices for Selected Farm Crops in Mississippi, 1947, by R. J. Saville and J. P. Gaines, was recently published as a mimeographed bulletin (14-0) from the Mississippi Experiment Station.

A study of income produced by hens on dairy and cotton farms, conducted by A. D. Seale, Jr., of the agricultural economics department, appeared in the February issue of Mississippi Farm Research.

#### RESEARCH

The health study of Choctaw, Bolivar, Forrest, and Lee counties, which is being done by the division of Sociology and Rural Life as an experiment station-extension cooperative project, is being continued. Tabulation of data on Bolivar and Forrest counties is in process. As reported elsewhere, the report on Lee county has just been issued. During the current semester Professor Marion Loftin is joining Professors Kaufman and Galloway on this project.

John Roberson, a major in agricultural economics and history, is at work on a study of the history of the cooperative movements in Mississippi.

James H. McLenon, assistant professor of history, is engaged in a study of the attacks on external lumber capitalism in Mississippi and its relationship to the political rise of the common man after 1900. Dr. McLenon is also engaged in a survey of newspaper source materials on Mississippi history for the purpose of assembling them for microfilming by the Mississippi State College Library.

Harold S. Snellgrove, of the history and government department, is engaged in research on the French Leper Houses of the Middle Ages.

Professors Harold Kaufman and Dorris Rivers, of the division of sociology and rural life, are preparing a study of "Organizations Serving Mississippi Farm People." Professor Rivers is at present conducting an evaluation of the Tupelo Community program.

Chester Wells, of the agricultural economics department, is in the process of tabulating, analyzing, and preparing the manuscript for a study of local cotton markets in the Mississippi Delta, entitled, "Marketing Channels, Services, and Charges of Local Buyers."

The division of sociology and rural life has initiated a study of farm labor and farm labor adjustments in the Delta. Bolivar County has been selected as the survey area, and intensive study of farm organization and the extent of mechanization will be made on a sample of 175 farms in the county. An analysis of the labor force, their skills and mobility, began in February. The study was designed originally to determine the relationship between the progress of mechanization and adjustment in farm labor in the area. With the proposed expansion of the cotton production program and the accelerated defense production program in industrial areas making demands on labor, the agricultural labor situation in the Delta will, in all probability, become even more critical, according to Dr. Harold A. Pedersen, who is project leader.

#### INDIVIDUAL ACTIVITIES

Professors T. A. Kelly, Dorris Rivers, and Benjamin Wofford have been invited to speak at a conference of Mississippi Employment Security Workers at Jackson on March 30-31. Dr. P. L. Rainwater, chief of Research and Information, is in charge of the program.

Ruth Ethridge, of the Agricultural Extension Service will participate in a project sponsored by the Women's Bureau and the Home Demonstration Section of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, whereby a group of six Japanese women will be brought to this country for orientation in American community life during a visit of three months.

Miss Mary Walker Mahon, child welfare supervisor for the State Department of Public Welfare, recently addressed the sociology classes of Dr. W. P. Carter and interviewed 15 students interested in careers as social service workers.

Professor W. W. Littlejohn, head of the accounting department, spoke in December to the Mississippi State College student chapter of the Society for the Advancement of Management on the much disputed Excess Profits Tax.

Lee B. Gaither, head of the resource-use education department, participated in the Workshop on Community Development in the South on February 9 and attended the annual convention of Southern Agricultural Workers



in Memphis, February 5-6.

Dr. John K. Bettersworth attended the organizational meeting of the Mississippi Research Clearing House in Jackson on January 23. Dr. Bettersworth spoke before the West Point Public Affairs Forum on January 19, using as his subject, "The United States and the World."

Miss Olive Sheets and Miss Sarah Sherrill, of the home economics department, attended the Southern Agricultural Workers meeting in Memphis on February 5-7. Mrs. Anna P. Forder, Extension nutritionist, Miss Mary Agnes Gordon, marketing and crafts specialist, and Miss Marie Gaddis, special assistant to the State Home Demonstration Agent, also attended the meeting.

The entire staff of the division of sociology and rural life attended the state sociology meeting at Millsaps on January 16.

Dr. H. S. Snellgrove will be visiting professor of history at the University of New Mexico during the coming summer. Dr. Snellgrove plans to attend the annual meeting of the Medieval Academy of America during the Easter vacation.

Five faculty members of the economics, accounting, and business administration departments attended professional meetings in Chicago December 27-30, the annual conventions of the American Economics Association, the Econometric Society, the American Statistical Association, and the American Marketing Association. They were B. M. Wofford, Roy A. Klages, C. H. Farnsworth, Norman Weir, and Tom A. Kelly.

Dean Herbert Drannon has been invited to meet with the Executive Committee of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities at the 1951 meeting of this organization, as a representative of the Council on Graduate Work. Last year Dr. Drannon was chairman of the council, and this year he is a member of the council's executive committee, as well as an ex-officio member of the association's executive committee.

Dr. Dorothy Diggins, head of the Mississippi Experiment Station home economics department, has been appointed to a four-year term on the Land-Grant College Experiment Station Committee on Organization and Policy.

Dr. Frank J. Welch, dean of the School of Agriculture, Mississippi State College, and director of the Mississippi Agricultural Experiment Station, has been selected as one of the principal speakers for the 1951 Farm and Home Convention at the University of Kentucky. Dr. Welch will speak January 30, on "Southern Agriculture and National Security." Dr. Welch was also recently appointed to the Land-Grant Association Advisory Subcommittee on Marketing Research.

Dean B. P. Brooks, of the Education School, led a delegation from Mississippi State to a regional meeting of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards in Jackson on January 12 and 13. Accompanying Dean Brooks were Dr. J. D. Falls, head of the adult education department; Professor V. S. Mann, acting head of the department of guidance education; Robert A. Weber, assistant professor of adult education; Robert P. White, associate professor of adult education; and Lee B. Gaither, acting head of the resource-use education department.

Professor Lee B. Gaither of the resource-use education department conducted a student inspection tour of lands and the plant of the Flintkate Company in Meridian, January 10.

Professor V. G. Martin, head of the agricultural education department, has been awarded a life membership in the American Vocational Association. The vocational agriculture teachers of Mississippi, many of them former students of Professor Martin, contributed the hundred dollars for his life membership as a token of their appreciation and respect.

Professors Robert Galloway and Marion Loftin, of the division of sociology and rural life, attended a meeting of the Rural Health Conference of the American Medical Association, at Memphis, February 23-24.

Dr. R. J. Saville, Mr. W. A. Faught, and Mr. Chester Wells, of the agricultural economics department, attended a meeting of the Regional Cotton Marketing Technical Committee in Memphis on February 7-8. Dr. Saville is chairman of this group, and Mr. Faught is regional project leader. At the meeting the status of current projects was reviewed and plans for 1951-52 were made.

Three graduate students in agricultural economics completed their work in January: Don R. Bryan, Marshall S. Dickerson, and Ralph W. Shaw. Mr. Bryan is remaining on the staff here. Mr. Dickerson has taken a position with the Livestock Branch of the P. & M.A. in Washington. Mr. Shaw has been employed at Memphis by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company in its Mortgage Loan Division.

Warren B. Scott attended the Southern College Personnel Association meeting at Vanderbilt last November. He has been invited to participate in the consideration of "Problems of Administering Student Personnel Services" at the Conference on Higher Education to be held April 2-4 in Chicago.

Donald Thompson, director of libraries, participated in a survey last fall of the U. S. Department of Agriculture Library in Washington, and together with four other librarians, presented a report at the meeting of the American Library Association in Chicago on February 2nd. In January, Mr. Thompson attended a meeting of the executive board of the Southeastern Library Association at Knoxville. Mr. Thompson was elected president of the Mississippi Library Association at its Biloxi meeting last fall. On January 15 Mr. Thompson addressed the college Y.M.C.A. faculty luncheon on the facilities of the State College Library.